Trends in Education

1973/3

September 1973

Department of Education and Science

HMSO 35p net

Annual subscription
£1.76 including postage

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN EDUCATION

Educational choice

Discussion in association

Book reviews

Trends in Education

SEPTEMBER 1976

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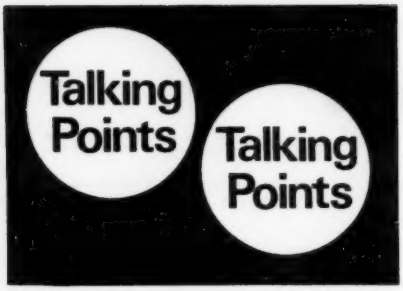
Enquiries concerning subscriptions should be addressed to HMSO, PO Box 569, London SE1 9NH.



Touchstones of excellence

Most educationalists now accept that 'transmission of the cultural heritage' is an inadequate aim for educators. Some reject it altogether. Nevertheless it would be a serious error to lose sight of one of Matthew Arnold's aims — to introduce learners to the best of each kind, so that they have touchstones against which to try the quality of all subsequent experience. 'If he is a dubious classic, let us sift him; if he is a false classic, let us explode him. But if he is a real classic, if his work belongs to the class of the very best (for this is the true and right meaning of the word *classic, classical*), then the great thing for us is to feel and enjoy his work as deeply as ever we can, and to appreciate the wide difference between it and all work which has not the same high character. This is what is salutary, this is what is formative . . . '. He was speaking particularly of poetry at this point, but he applies the same principle to other arts and sciences through all his writing.

Our touchstones cannot be the same as Arnold's. Since 1888, there has been a wealth of new perceptions about the nature of man and the universe, and new formulations of these across the whole range of the arts and sciences. What might our touchstones be? Some will still come from the past: the written word, painting, sculpture, architecture, music. Others belong to modes which could not be recorded at an earlier stage, or did not even exist: the superb landscape photography of David Muench in Arizona; the precise and controlled heroism of the spacemen, backed by the unprecedented teamwork of NASA; the multiple model-making that led to the double helix discovery of DNA; the exquisite musicality of Margot Fonteyn's dancing. These will set the standards for subsequent achievements in the same fields, just as any modern tragedian has to stand comparison with Shakespeare and any modern architect with Palladio or Le Corbusier. Without a continuous process of familiarizing new generations with touchstones of excellence, each assessment would start in a void.

Parson's nose

There's a rather nice story floating round the senior common rooms at the moment, and it goes something like this.

A university vice-chancellor died and was refused admittance to heaven. But St Peter took pity on him and suggested that he could do a lot worse than apply for the recently created post of vice-chancellor of the University of Hades. Arriving in Hell, he was warmly welcomed by the Devil himself who outlined for him the conditions of employment. As these were far better than any ever likely to be dreamed up by the AUT even in their most euphoric moments, he accepted on the spot. 'Before you confirm your acceptance in writing', said the Devil, 'I think I ought to point out that this, after all, *is* Hell. You will have two departments of sociology'.

This story merely confirms what we all already know: sociologists get a bad press. Educational sociologists get an even worse one, perhaps because we are all fully convinced that we know *something* about education and what we do know often runs counter to the sociologists' view. We try to eat our cake and have it. If we think their conclusions are wrong, we call

their conclusions absurd; if we think they are right, we call them obvious. We ask them to look at social institutions and analyse them. If they recommend changes, we accuse them of radicalism; if they do not, we accuse them of complacency.

Then, of course, sociologists use jargon.

Often we are quite happy to accept jargon. Most of us swallow without hesitation pills we know nothing about, prescribed in a language we do not understand, but we trust the doctor. We don't expect to understand much of the *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, say, or *Géotechnique*. Yet we have a deep-rooted suspicion that the *British Journal of Sociology* is merely trying to dress mutton up as lamb.

While this prejudice exists, sociologists ought to acknowledge it and go some way towards meeting it. Fortunately, there is some evidence that they are. Peter Berger's *Invitation to Sociology* (Penguin) is only one of a number of good introductory texts; Stanislav Andreski's attack, in *The Social Sciences as Sorcery* (also Penguin), on the baleful influence Talcott Parsons has had on sociological writing is doubly welcome, coming as it does from a practising social scientist; and textbooks like Jane Thompson's *Sociology for Schools* (Hutchinson) and Nobbs, Hine and Flemming's *Sociology* (Macmillan) are clearly written and ought to provide a sound basis of understanding and good practice for the steadily increasing number of CSE and GCE candidates.

But when we are faced with writers anxious to enter into 'relatively unstructured interpersonal intercommunications' or urging schools to 'internalize their dichotomies', the best we can do is fervently to hope that succeeding generations will remember Hamlet's advice to the players:

> . . . let your own discretion be your tutor; suit the action to the word, the word to the action; with this special observance, that you o'er-step not the modesty of nature.

Perspectives on English and American education

Every so often at an appropriate point in its history a nation pauses, as it were, to take stock. We in this country did it at the time of the Great Exhibition of 1851 when Britain was at the height of its imperial power and industrial and commercial expansion. We did it again in 1951 at the Festival of Britain as a much-needed shot in the arm after the enervation of fighting a major war. The Americans are doing it this year, and some people may see a subtle irony in the fact that our stocktaking has always been associated with industrial, theirs with political, revolution.

TRENDS is, of course, a journal whose editorial policy is dedicated to the proposition that educational systems, techniques and policies, at home or abroad, should be looked at every so often to see how well they are working and whether they offer pointers to the future. The editors therefore felt it to be appropriate that, this year of all years, people with a particular experience of, or a particular interest in, aspects of English and American education should be asked to set their observations down. As our contributors show, whatever the differences may be between our different systems, we have problems as well as successes in common. Here, as in much else, we have much to learn from each other.

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American and English education compared

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Faith in schools as a panacea has a long history in the USA. Seventeenth century state laws required townships to set up compulsory schools to combat ignorance—Satan's strongest weapon. The founders of the republic placed their trust in schools which would teach all children their civic rights and duties and select an aristocracy of talent for positions of leadership. Subsequently Congress has, from time to time, seen education as vital to the common defence and general welfare of the nation. Universal, compulsory, and free, American schools provide education as a human right and are expected to safeguard democracy,

reduce social class differences, contribute to economic growth, and ensure the safety of the nation. A tall order—but a traditional faith to which Americans are most likely to turn in facing today's problems.

British traditions are not dissimilar, although our faith in education is less overt and the influence of French and German ideas has not been as great as it has on the Americans. Nevertheless, in both countries rather similar problems are tackled in somewhat similar ways. Transatlantic communication and borrowing has been a two-way affair, but since it has never been perfect, differences and likenesses in the two systems of education exist. They are, however, explicable and may, perhaps, best be illuminated by concentration on a few key questions.

Local control

To whom do the schools belong? This issue has been debated in both countries for nearly two centuries. Thomas Jefferson argued that in the USA a wall should separate Church from State. The Supreme Court has consistently interpreted the First Amendment to the Constitution to mean that parochial schools, most of which are Roman Catholic, should not receive public money. The expense of maintaining the large number of Catholic schools keeps this issue very much alive and the formula adopted in the English 1944 Education Act must certainly appear to Americans as being extremely generous. The provision in the Act for communal worship and religious instruction in maintained schools should be compared with many US Supreme Court rulings that the teaching of religion in public schools is contrary to the First Amendment and therefore unconstitutional.

In both countries, tradition decrees that public (i.e. not private) schools should be local institutions. In the USA, by virtue of the Tenth Amendment, the separate States are responsible for education. The laws they pass regulate school provision and delegate to local school districts such powers as they have. Elected school boards raise funds to pay teachers and build schools. Bond issues, for capital expenditure, and a tax on real estate specifically to run schools make expenditure on education a matter of local concern. Local businessmen, property owners, professional people, and parents consequently expect to play a greater part in the running of local schools than they do in England and Wales. As school board members they hire, fire, and fix the terms of employment and salaries of teachers and administrators. Since there are no national salary scales, a teacher's pay depends very much on the wealth of the community in which he or she works, and on its willingness to pay high education taxes. State equalization funds do little more than provide for a minimum *per capita* expenditure on education in the state. In England and Wales, national equalization formulae make *per capita* expenditure in education less dependent on local wealth

and initiative. Consequently differences in salary, buildings, and equipment are less marked than within and between States in America — for example, between old inner city and nearby suburban schools, or between, say, schools in California and Louisiana.

In both countries, the ability of small local authorities to meet the rising costs of education has declined. The consolidation of local school districts is an obvious trend in the USA. In 1930 there were over 125,000 local school boards; some ran only primary schools, others only high schools. By 1970, the number had dropped to 18,000 the majority of whom were responsible for a unified system of schools including kindergartens, primary schools, junior and senior high schools and junior colleges. At the same time, the financial involvement of the Federal government has increased. In 1930 it provided less than 1 per cent of the money spent on education in the USA; by 1970 this proportion had reached 7 per cent.

Federal aid

For over a hundred years Federal laws have provided for land and money under a clause in the preamble to the Constitution. In providing for the defence and general welfare of the nation, vocational education has received support. The 1958 National Education and Defense Act financed curriculum developments in mathematics, the natural sciences, and modern languages. The programmes developed under this initiative are not dissimilar from Nuffield Science and new mathematics syllabuses. In the USA so-called 'gifted' children benefited. In the sixties, it was the turn of children living in very poor communities. The 1965 Elementary and Secondary School Act provided Federal money to improve the education of children in areas identified as being in particular need. Similar policies were adopted in this country when Educational Priority Areas (EPAs) were created and supported.

A major difference between Federal aid and DES support for education is that the former is always granted for clearly defined purposes and under strictly specified conditions. For example, under the 1965 Act, grants can be refused to states in which deliberate attempts are made to retain segregated schools. Another difference is that, in spite of its increased spending, less than 10 per cent of the total national expenditure on education comes from the Federal government. More than 50 per cent is raised locally and a little over 40 per cent is provided from the funds of the separate states.

Neither state equalization funds nor Federal aid have brought about desired improvements in districts where the culture of poverty is apparent. Differences in provision are still unacceptably great and no doubt can only be reduced by even more substantial

aid from Washington. Traditional fears that the Federal government may abuse its power sustain present day localism as protecting individual freedoms. The belief in America that he who pays the piper should call the tune suggests that these fears are not groundless. English educators dislike rather than fear government interference in their schools. The issues in both countries are the same: Can liberty and equality be pursued simultaneously? Can equal educational provision be made in either country without massive support from central government? And can such aid be provided without eroding the freedom of parents, teachers, and pupils? At a very general level the dilemma is clear, the ownership of schools, property and the means of production is in dispute. Americans generally are less willing than we are to abandon classical liberal concepts of democracy, but debate in both countries will continue.

Education for all

Who shall be educated? In both countries the answer is 'everyone' during a period of compulsory schooling and increasingly on a voluntary basis throughout adult life. All children are required to attend school in England and Wales between the ages of 5 and 16. In most of the states they are expected to complete twelve years of schooling from the age of 6. Post-compulsory provision has been expanded in both countries, and many parents send their children to school before they are required by law to do so. Life-long education for everyone is certainly an American dream.

The expansion of educational provision in the USA has been impressive. The push to improve and universalize eight years of common elementary schooling, initiated in the 1840s by Horace Mann and others, was completed before the end of the century. The explosion of enrolments in four-year senior high schools was triggered off in 1874 by the Kalamazoo case in Michigan which authorized the expenditure of public funds on the senior high schools. Between 1884 and 1970 enrolments grew from 200,000 to 13·5 million and by 1940 'high school education for all' had been virtually achieved in many parts of the USA. Education was ripe for a post-war explosion in higher education in some 2,000 institutions. Open access to higher education in New York City and some state universities was a phenomenon of the 'sixties and early 'seventies. Expansion in England and Wales has been slower and it seems unlikely that a comparable explosion in enrolments in higher education will occur in the foreseeable future. Perhaps the Open University offers a solution to the demand for higher education as a human right.

In practice, as comparative research has shown, not everyone in either country has equal access to education, and the quality of provision varies. Social class, racial origin, linguistic back-

ground, and in some cases, religious beliefs influence a child's chances in both countries. American experience of some consequential problems pre-dates ours. Nineteenth century immigrants came from all kinds of cultural backgrounds. A large proportion of them had little or no formal education. Negroes still constitute a disadvantaged minority. Religious pluralism in the USA does not, and is unlikely to, lead to public support for religious schools. Children from lower income-groups are still underrepresented in prestige universities.

The American solution

The American solution to the problem posed by social class differences was first of all to create common elementary schools and then comprehensive high schools. In the process, the private preparatory schools and many of the prestigious private academies were forced to close long before similar institutions came under attack in this country. Yet it cannot be said that comprehensive high schools in America have equalized access to education in the USA. In big-city schools truancy, indiscipline, violence, drugs, and crime exercise the anxious attention of teachers, administrators, and law enforcement officers. Yet selective schools have no appeal. Experiments with new kinds of middle schools are popular. Open education along the lines of English primary schools impresses and alternatives to schools are advocated by many educators in the USA.

Superficially, girls and women have gained equality of access to education in America. All the schools are coeducational and the proportion of women in higher education is higher than in any other country. Perhaps personal preferences, as elsewhere, turn them away from mathematics, the physical sciences, and engineering into languages, biology, and the social sciences. Their opportunities in the legal and medical professions may be limited, but teachers in primary and secondary schools are mainly women. Perhaps the strength of women's 'lib' is more a reflection of a residual Puritanism than of inequality of access to education.

Many of the problems which the Americans had to deal with in the nineteenth century arose from the flood of immigrants from Europe. As the century neared its close, a very great proportion of them were illiterate. The schools absorbed their children, and succeeded in turning them into literate English-speaking Americans. Federal legislation slowed the flood down to a trickle in the twentieth century. Both policies contributed to the successful resolution of problems which are now exemplified by the desire of the more recent immigrants from Puerto Rico to retain Spanish as their *lingua franca* and as the medium of instruction in the schools, particularly in New York City, which their children attend. Recent legislation to control immigration

from Commonwealth countries in the United Kingdom reflects a similar stance to that taken in America. The cultural integration of those who are in the United Kingdom will depend to some extent on the ability of the schools to absorb and improve the language skills of children from diverse backgrounds and the willingness of members of these groups to cooperate.

Race and religion

The US Supreme Court has played a decisive role in the issues of race and religion. It has consistently interpreted the First Amendment to mean that parochial schools should not receive public money and that the public schools should not teach religion. As for the access of Negroes or blacks to education, the Supreme Court ruled in 1954 that segregated schools were inherently unequal, thus reversing the 1896 decision which, by extension, was held to mean that separate schools for whites and blacks were permitted by the Constitution provided that they were equal. A succession of reports culminating in the Coleman Report (1965) have shown that, for the most part, 'black' and 'white' schools are not equal.

Neither of the solutions offered to this problem in the USA have had unqualified success. The first, forced integration by busing children from one school district to another, has provoked a violent white backlash. The attitude of the blacks is also ambivalent. Some of them wish to provide 'black studies' either to promote Afro-American culture or to strengthen the political and economic power of their community. The second solution, compensatory education, supported by Federal funds, pre-dates Plowden and the creation of the EPAs. The intentions behind both schemes are similar. Low achievement in school is thought to be due, in some part at least, to the socio-economic position and cultural background of the pupils' parents. Programmes such as Head Start encouraged disadvantaged children in the USA to enrol before the age (6 years) of compulsory attendance on the assumption that, while familial background is important, schools can somehow minimize the disadvantages from which some pupils suffer. These programmes encouraged many blacks to send their children to nursery schools, and the proportion of such children rose from 11 per cent in 1963 to 21 per cent in 1970. Results have been discouraging and it seems clear that blacks remain the under-achievers in American schools dominated by a white Anglo-Saxon culture. Present pessimism in the USA and England about the ability of schools to compensate children from homes where language patterns, levels of parental education, and cultural environment are restricted has encouraged educators to ask whether present curricula are inappropriate and whether alternatives to schools as sources of information ought to be developed.

Curriculum theory

What knowledge is of most worth? The answer given by Herbert Spencer was taken up by the pragmatists and has informed curriculum theory in the USA ever since. His view that the content of education should be selected in the light of the problems young people are likely to meet when they leave school was enshrined in the Seven Cardinal Principles of Curriculum Development proposed by a National Education Association commission in 1918. Problem areas included healthy living, occupational choice and subsequent success, civic participation, the use of leisure, family life, and morality. These principles justify a core curriculum based on problem-solving and elective subjects drawn from the natural sciences, the social sciences, and modern languages.

American critics of this progressive approach to the curriculum such as Robert Hutchins, Arthur Bestor and others proposed a return to a discipline-centred curriculum. Such criticism culminated after Sputnik in new mathematics and science syllabuses for gifted American children. This was a response to university academics who, perhaps, wanted the high school to do part of their job. In England, many features of these American programmes were incorporated into Nuffield science — an example of uncritical cultural borrowing. The up-to-dateness of the science content cannot disguise the fact that in mass systems of education these new syllabuses constitute a return to a traditional approach to the curriculum. More radical theorists in this country depend heavily on American curriculum theory in the works of Hilda Taba, Ralph Tyler, and a more recent writer John Goodlad. Debates about the value of what I choose to call *essentialist* and *pragmatic* curriculum theories are bound to continue for some time. They will be conducted largely among the producers of education, namely professors of education and academics from the non-professional fields of enquiry.

Teacher education

Most people agree that successful solutions to educational problems depend upon the quality of teachers. In both countries the trend is towards an all-graduate profession. There were earlier developments in the USA than in this country although the first normal schools (1830s) and university chairs in education (1870s) were established at about the same time. After 1910, American normal schools began to develop into teachers' colleges granting degrees in education. In the 'twenties and 'thirties, they were transformed into liberal arts colleges which awarded degrees not only in education but in other subjects. Later, as they acquired university status, they offered postgraduate courses leading to masters' and doctors' degrees. Many former normal schools are now huge universities into which is incorporated a large college or school of education. These are frequently organized into two

departments, one for elementary and the other for secondary school teachers.

Four-year programmes for students intending to teach in elementary schools often include education courses from the first or second year. Students preparing to become high school teachers usually postpone educational courses until the third, fourth, or even fifth year and major in a teaching subject. Most teacher education programmes include a compulsory general education element. Teaching practice is postponed in most cases until the fourth (or fifth) year. On the recommendation of the college or university, State Boards award an appropriate certificate to successful students. To obtain a permanent certificate, teachers must usually teach for some time and take additional courses.

Many of the recommendations in the James Report on teacher education reflect aspects of American thought and practice. The report offered teacher-trainers in England opportunities to develop their institutions along the lines followed in the USA. It suggested that teacher education should take place, as in the States, in polytechnics rather than monotechnics; that the training sequence should include a period of general education followed by professional courses; and that it should be concluded by probationary service, initial teaching practice and subsequent in-service courses. It envisaged an all-graduate profession and a third sector of higher education. A missed opportunity or unacceptable foreign transplants? Time will tell. Meanwhile the teaching profession in the USA benefits from the incorporation of teacher education fully into liberal arts universities.

The way ahead?

Viewed in comparative perspective, interchange between the USA and England has been fruitful. In creating a new civilization the Americans have placed great faith in their schools and have not failed to call upon European ideas. In so far as it has had to meet the challenges of rapid change, the British system has been able to learn from American experience, has made use of their research, and incorporated some of their practices into the schools. Nevertheless, each country has thus far tackled its problems from unique standpoints based on evolving traditions. Today the question might be whether either set of assumptions can adequately meet the problems we face. The most serious of these arise in the conurbations here and in the USA. At the turn of the century John Dewey anticipated some of them and offered solutions which reflected his confidence in the educative influence of the small 'frontier' community. Can 'rural' solutions really help when the problems of 'urban' living are so different now from those of the nineteenth century? I doubt it. Traditional remedies cannot cure new diseases. Doubtless the disillusionment expressed by de-schoolers stems, in part, from the inadequacy of

present educational practices in large conurbations here and in the USA. If such radical new initiatives are needed, comparative studies and research could, as Sir Michael Sadler hoped, contribute to the development of realistic policies to meet some common problems. I would like to think that in this bicentennial year new cooperative enquiries could be launched which would benefit both countries.

Trends 1976/3

Current trends in American education

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Three years ago the most visible trends in American education were new styles of instruction and new ways of looking at schooling. A mini educational industry had grown up around the efforts to adopt and adapt the teaching style of the English infant school for the American elementary sector. North Dakota was the industry's largest workshop; the decision had been made at state level that these new forms of instruction should be tried. In New York, as well as there being local initiative and encouragement from elementary education departments in the State University, the State Commissioner of Education himself, E. Nyquist, had put together a book on 'open education'.

Another variant of 'open education' was the free school movement. At its extreme, the movement offered, to upper-class white suburban adolescents, lessons on Indian canoe-building in the Maine woods. Yet the movement's roots are obvious enough and intellectually respectable. In place of the bureaucratization, the political messages and the competitiveness of the ordinary schooling system, the movement offered a pedagogic style which owed much to Summerhill and a political stance conventionally termed radical. Middle-class parents grouped together to implement their vision of a better education for their children.

At the secondary level in the cities, courageous experiments were made to treat the city itself as an educational environment. The most publicised example is probably the Parkway Programme in Philadelphia, but efforts of this sort were made in a number of big cities, including Chicago and New York. Similarly 'storefront schools', outside the public education system were organized in the inner city areas of cities such as Boston, Oakland, Newark, Milwaukee, and St Louis. The phrase 'storefront school' or 'street

academy' passed into American educational literature, and into the vocabulary of funding agencies and the large foundations.

In tertiary education 'individualization of instruction' was the focus of much practical experiment. There was an increased use of 'pass-fail' grading. Mandatory A-E grading (for all courses taken) was judged to encourage a highly instrumental student view of the educational process. Efforts were made to provide even more flexible undergraduate course choices, and the notion of a degree especially tailored to student interests (the 'ad hoc major') became more popular.

Money problems

That was three years ago. The highly publicized problem in American education today is money; the most appropriate symbol the near-bankruptcy of New York City. In late 1975, what was debated in the quality Sunday papers was less the latest theories of an Illich and more the plight of the City University of New York (CUNY). CUNY had been characterized by free tuition, special assistance for Puerto Rican and black students, an excellent record of engagement in city affairs, and one of the best paid faculties in the nation. Now it was being proposed that tuition fees should be charged, that admission qualifications should be tightened, and that large numbers of staff should be fired.

The tensions that were CUNY's are now more widespread. Federal money for education is now less plentiful. State legislatures are demanding clearer statements from university presidents on university purposes and, often, the rationalization of programmes. Local school boards are finding their annual money-raising efforts far more arduous. At the individual level, university teachers are being fired, and increasing numbers of teachers, especially newly qualified graduates, are unemployed. Of course, there are exceptions to these generalizations. Qualified black graduates and especially black women are sought after for university positions. The junior college sector of American tertiary education is still growing rapidly. Particular universities, such as Georgia State University, located in the boom town of Atlanta, continue to attract large numbers of students. The thrust toward desegregation in American education, and equality of educational opportunity generally, is still strongly backed by Federal money.

Nevertheless, as we have had to re-learn in Britain, money and unemployment are inelegant but forceful constraints on an educational system. A slower rate of expansion after decades of growth is painful. People make different decisions in such a context.

One consequence in the United States has been an increasing tendency for students to make more carefully considered career choices. Courses, such as accountancy, where the career potential is clear, have become more popular at undergraduate level. Teaching, the fail-safe vocational choice of American students, is

attracting fewer candidates. Similarly, the general liberal education courses — in art, history, language and literature, and Western civilization — are less popular. This — when class numbers consistently decline — in turn poses problems for faculty members, whether tenured or untenured. Tenure, as a number of State Supreme Court decisions have shown, is no safeguard against unemployment provided the university follows 'due process' in dismissal, and can show economic grounds for such action.

As a corollary, the phenomenon of the unionization of teachers, so much a feature of competition between the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers in the late sixties, is being followed in the mid-seventies by the unionization of university professors. The important concerns of the American Association of University Professors for academic freedom are now being replaced by faculty concern for job security. In the larger universities, where scale and numbers have already led to the segmentation of interest groups — students, faculty, and administration — the present economic stresses seem likely to widen the gap between 'the administrators' and the rest. Education, the fat cat of the 'sixties and earlier 'seventies, is beginning to look a meaner, more confused and fairly angry cat in the mid-seventies.

But money is not the only thing to have an impact on tertiary education. It is certainly true that junior college students are cheaper to educate, per capita, than university students. It would, however, be a mistake to interpret the expansion of the junior college sector merely as part of a drive towards economy in education. Philosophically, the junior colleges were justified as a means of increasing educational opportunity. Institutionally, they added to the vocationally oriented stress in the post-secondary sector of education. Sociologically, they were part of local, decentralized, community-centred education — hence the significance of the name 'community colleges'.

Teacher education

The competency-based teacher education (CBTE) movement owes nothing to the economy drive by state legislatures. Competency-based teacher education is the effort to categorize the actual skills, used by classroom teachers, to arrange these skills in a series of training 'modules', to take students through these modules in a testable sequence, and thus to produce 'competent' teachers. CBTE arose out of the desire to 'guarantee a product' in American education; intellectually, it is related to the performance-contracting movement of the late 'sixties; politically, it is justified to the American public as guaranteeing the quality of teachers. It is a very significant trend in American education, but its rationales, some of the research on which it is based, and its political acceptability are rooted in the early 'seventies and not in the current financial crisis.

The money problem also tends to obscure the continued existence of various forms of an open education movement. The interest in the English infant school is currently being 'domesticated': American teachers who have attempted innovation in their own schools are now reporting to American teachers. The summer invasion of university centres by English experts is beginning to diminish. The 'storefront schools' are in such a crucial area of American education — the point where race and inner city problems overlap — that they seem likely to continue. They are examples of community self-help and a source of innovatory example for the public sector. Other trends of significance include continued experimentation with the 'voucher system' and the provision of alternatives within the public education system. One development, of interest here, is the establishment — as a result of parental pressure — of schools offering different teaching styles within the same 'local authority' area. Thus parents, within the publicly financed education system have the choice of rather formal, or more informal, teaching styles for their children. All these aspects of the 'open education' movement reaffirm the increased pressure for local input and community involvement in education, the search for options, innovation and a less bureaucratized system of education. The general trend seems likely to survive the financial difficulties.

Equality of provision

There is one current trend in American education which does seem to have a great deal to do with money. Local property taxes are the basis of much educational finance. Some districts are far richer than others. How just is this? In legal terms is this inequality of provision a violation of the Fourteenth Amendment, 'equal protection clause' of the Constitution? This 'money issue' has been the subject of several court cases and it seems extremely likely that the debate about equality of finance in education will continue to be tested through the courts.

Such testing will be part of a broader, continuing trend in American education. Attempts to provide equal educational opportunities have become increasingly adroit. Earlier solutions are now considered to have been too crude or as having produced unintended results. Busing, for example, is now more unpopular with parents, including black parents, with the general public (busing is expensive), with academic sociologists, and with politicians. 'Affirmative action' — the requirement under Federal law to make positive efforts to identify and to recruit women and minority group members to institutions that are receiving Federal money of $50,000 or more — affected the recruitment of academics to a large number of American universities. Now there is a reaction against the legislation not only from white male racists but from black academics as well. The competition (for black female

academics in particular) is increasingly interpreted as distorting the financial rewards for a small group of qualified candidates but as having little to do with the structure of the problem. The stress is now shifting back to the recruitment of women and minority students to graduate schools.

Educational opportunity

Much of the bite in the educational opportunity debate is being provided by the number of radicals now working in American academies. The student protest movements of the late 'sixties were supported by some junior faculty members who now hold associate or full professorships. These academics, in 'revisionist history', in 'critical' sociology and philosophy, are having their work published, and it is widely read. The theme of much of their work is equality of educational opportunity. Together with radical women and blacks they are forming caucuses in their professional societies, giving papers, and influencing the selection of conference topics. Their commitment is obvious, their judgements on their predecessors often harsh, and they are inspiring their own counter-reaction. Nevertheless sociologically, the new critics through their own new simplicities have made the definition of and the debate about educational opportunity less crude and mechanistic.

The short-term effects of the money issue in American education, then, include a direct impact on the lives of both students and teachers. In particular, cases like CUNY, the degree to which money interferes with broader goals, such as the chances of education for Puerto Ricans and blacks, is painfully clear. But it is these broader goals and their styles of implementation which throw the current trends of American education into perspective. The issues of equality of educational opportunity, of race and ethnicity, and the thrust towards innovation, self-criticism, and flexibility are currently still strong.

The style in which these issues are being worked out is also of great importance. One style is towards tightness, predictability, and order. It draws, intellectually, on behaviourist psychology, systems analysis, and the managerial sciences. It sees its expression in statewide planning of tertiary education systems, in the style of academic planning on particular campuses, and in the existence, within the education service, of specialist training and career lines for administrators. The movement's philosophy has strongly influenced curriculum theory and the ways of examining pupils. It was influential in legitimizing the performance contracting movement of the late 'sixties and its most current manifestation is the competency-based teacher education movement. This philosophic tradition in American education is a long one. Its current analogue is to treat education as if one were planning a zero-defect moonshot, if necessary on a small budget.

The second movement, in tension with the first, is towards diversity of provision in education, local grass-roots political pressure, and community participation. Its public manifestations include the open education movement, parental involvement in the educational system, and the legitimate impact of pressure groups. Involved now are not only those traditional guardians of local virtue, the veterans' groups, but also ethnic groups, and the women's rights movement.

The money problem helps to mask the fact that both movements share certain common assumptions. First, education should be extended to as many people as possible. Secondly, education is a major force for social change. Thirdly, education should have practical and utilitarian returns. Fourthly, education should contribute to the quality of American life.

The working out of these assumptions defines the long-term trends of American education. 'Unfinished business' defines the substance of the current themes; and the balance between the cult of efficiency and individual choice has much to do with the current styles of educational provision.

Trends 1976/3

American studies in Britain

ROY AVERY

Headmaster, The Grammar School, Bristol

'There was very little in my excellent grammar school education to rip apart a tough patchwork of preconceptions, for in British schools in my day American history stopped abruptly with the outbreak of the Revolutionary War on the principle that if they did not need us, we did not need them'. *Alistair Cook.*

Alistair Cook has played a leading and popular role in throwing out much of the prejudice-crammed mental baggage which the Englishman carries on his exploration, real or imaginary, of the United States. Many others have done their share in ripping up the fabric of mistaken assumptions, so that in American studies, as in *Green Pastures*, 'Things nailed down are fast coming loose'.

Much credit should also go to the British Association for American Studies (BAAS) — which was founded in 1955 and has now come of age — the universities, polytechnics, colleges of education, the United States Information Service (USIS), the BBC

and ITV, the Claverton Manor American Museum, the John Judkyn Memorial, and many other agencies, all of which aim at equipping and encouraging the teacher in the classroom.

A striking feature of the years since the Second World War has been the emergence of a group of academics who have made the USA a central subject of their reading and writing. Professor Esmond Wright estimates that they have produced some ninety major books on American history, fifty works of literary criticism and forty studies of American politics. *The Journal of American Studies*, edited by Professor Denis Welland, has justly earned a high reputation for academic excellence.

American studies in schools

American studies in our schools and colleges portray issues of the greatest importance, such as democracy in theory and practice. The USA has created the most prosperous society in the history of the world. Its values may be bourgeois, suburban, and materialistic, but they are appreciated by 215 million people who, like their ancestors, were sufficiently tempted by them to move to the USA from all over the world. The USA's achievements were made possible only by a democratic and open system of government in which all men, whatever their race, creed, or natural origin, were by 1865 at least deemed to be free or to be capable of freedom.

The USA was the first successful republic in modern history at a time when the word 'Republican' carried similar implications to those of Bolshevism in the twentieth century. Its ultra-democratic political methods are absorbing themes. Students can be stimulated by the force and topicality of Tom Paine's *The Rights of Man* and sixth form lessons enlivened, for example, by a discussion of his remark, 'Government is, like dress, the badge of lost innocence'. There is a wealth of excellent material for students in the written Constitution, the handiwork of James Madison and Alexander Hamilton, which, together with a Bill of Rights, has been copied by many other nations.

The comparison of the development of the USA and Great Britain is a stimulating one. As Professor Wright has pointed out, the USA applied its revolutionary, democratic methods on an unmapped continent and in the Ordinances of 1785 and 1787 and in the Constitution itself, it devised Federalism in order to do so. Yet the British in India were still tying their conquered or allied states to them by 'subsidiary' treaties. Almost all of the developed democracies, and some of the less democratic states that have come into being since 1776, have been similarly Federal in form — Canada, Australia, South Africa, Germany, USSR, and Yugoslavia, for example. Students can discuss these issues profitably and also consider why we in Britain today, priding ourselves on our unique, unified, parliamentary government, are now contemplating a reluctantly conceded Federalism of our own — by the

setting up of separate Parliaments for Scotland and Wales to match the distinct nationalisms that have always marked the social character of the British Isles. Other fruitful subjects for argument and dramatic illustration in the classrooom are the Civil War and Black studies in general, the comparison between the British and American Industrial Revolutions, and the different role of the frontier in the USA and Canada or Russia.

Many other subjects which have a particularly strong appeal to the adolescent can be studied. The great and continued popularity of Salinger's *Catcher in the Rye* is one example of a shared interest in literature; the development of folk, blues and jazz music is another popular Anglo-American enthusiasm, always worthy of critical examination. In mass culture, the film and the film industry are unfailing sources for exploration. Even half a century of Westerns has not sated the appetite of film-goers all over the world, and children can learn useful critical standards from an acquaintance with the Western myth and its reality. Enthusiasts such as Tom Hastie,* and national film critics like Dilys Powell or Philip French have done a great deal to indicate the depth of the tragedy and comedy, and the complexity of American life and society as depicted in film and television. The American Arts Documentation Centre at Exeter University is also an invaluable source of material.

The last ten years

Clearly, considerable progress has been made in the last ten years. The BAAS special courses for teachers in schools and colleges held at the universities of Sussex, Durham and Birmingham reflected the encouraging expansion of American subjects, especially at teacher training level. The course at Birmingham in April 1976 offered a wide range of seminars including Government and the Constitution. In return for their hard work on these courses, the teachers enjoy meeting colleagues with similar interests and being taught by experienced tutors. (Such conferences are open to non-members of BAAS.) No one seriously involved in teaching at any level can afford to ignore the many advantages offered by the BAAS.†

The United States Information Service has played a helpful role in the expansion of American subjects. Among their many activities are the fostering of conferences, the formation of local or regional groups in all sectors of education, the provision of speakers for schools, and the presentation of exhibitions at the American

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* ILEA Teachers' Centre, London, SW9.

† The Secretary of the British Association of American Studies is Dr Alan Graham, Department of History, the Queen's University, Belfast, Northern Ireland. A newsletter published twice yearly on behalf of the BAAS by Peter Boyle and Robert Reinders of the University of Nottingham contains news of members, conferences, details of curriculum developments or new teaching methods, as well as reviews and articles on subjects of interest to Americanists.

Embassy and on tours around the country. Local initiative is one of the healthiest signs of vitality, as the development of local chapters of the British Association in the West Midlands clearly shows.

Another powerful stimulus to the promotion of American subjects has come from HM Inspectorate. The Anglo-American history teachers' conferences held at the California Institute of Technology in the summer of 1973, and at the University of York in 1974, revealed the vast amount of work to be done in helping teachers and educational administrators in both countries to define their aims and improve their techniques by sharing information and exchanging ideas about curricula, materials and equipment. The increasingly sympathetic involvement of HMIs in this field, as part of their long-term programme of international cooperation, is most encouraging. With the help of their knowledge and experience of many different types of school, they can recognize and, where necessary, criticize aberrations in the teaching of American subjects and help teachers and students to make an effective study of the United States.

Emigration studies

Among the many results of the recent Anglo-American Conferences has been the development at primary and secondary level of emigration studies. These have begun promisingly, although not without initial difficulties, in North Wales and in Cornwall where individual schools have linked with American communities and collated material on members of emigrant families from their areas. The children of one primary school in Pwllheli have photographed the houses and chapels of the emigrants from their area and studied original documents in the form of letters to discover why people emigrated and where they settled. In Redruth, pupils at a junior school have been examining the fortunes of the Cornish miners who left for the USA and have made contact with a community in Colorado where the miners began their new life. Old prints, letters, photographs, and local newspapers all give junior children an absorbing first experience of research into the living past. Teachers' conferences organized by HMIs in Bangor and Fowey have fostered keen interest in such projects.

American studies in primary and middle schools often revolve around the subject of the Indians and the West. Barbara Currie of Rolle College, Exmouth, has shown how young children can enjoy the legends from Hiawatha to Paul Bunyan, but can also learn how to disentangle fact from fiction. They are taught how to perceive the relationship between the Indian tribes' culture and their environment, and how to appreciate the cowboy as more than a gun-toting idler.

The linking of schools in transatlantic study projects is part of the promising plan undertaken by the Associated Examining Board

(AEB), with USIS encouragement through the Bicentennial Partnership Project, in launching their American Studies at O (Alternative) level. The first examination will be held in June 1977. It is clear that many GCE and CSE Boards seek to promote some interest in the USA, but the AEB is embarking upon an interesting and exciting venture. The emphasis of the new syllabus is on America today but naturally, background knowledge of the past is included because it is essential to an understanding of what is happening in the USA today. The approach to the syllabus is interdisciplinary; it considers the interaction of geography and economics, history and politics, and sociology and culture. In the section on the American city, for example, a novel and a play on urban life are included as an option. Students are encouraged to read novels, biographies, newspapers, and periodicals such as *Time* and *Newsweek*, and to listen to the radio and see films, plays and television programmes.

The initial response from consultations with groups of teachers all over the country is encouraging; the AEB is compiling a list of teaching materials and their sources and two permanent teachers' resource centres are being planned. The new syllabus should have a special appeal for sixth formers and further education students.*

Increasing opportunity

For the academic flier, it is pleasing to note the increasing opportunity for answers on American subjects in the open scholarship papers. One of the growth areas is undoubtedly the general studies sets or GCE classes in individual or combined A-level subjects. St Austell Sixth Form College, for example, is planning a new general studies course for September 1976 which will examine in considerable depth the American film industry and its all-pervading influence and significance.

In Bristol Grammar School itself, American history is taught to fourth and fifth year pupils as part of world affairs to O-level, and to sixth form sets for A- and S-level examinations. A staple textbook for the pre-O-level student is still C. P. Hill's *History of the USA*† and, for the sixth form, it is Christine Bolt's *History of the USA*.‡ For general studies sets, a wide range of books is used to illustrate different aspects of America together with slides, film, tapes and records. Pupils, especially sixth formers, keen on travel will gain much help from the Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges, the English Speaking Union, and the American Field Service Organization. The Bicentennial year has resulted in a profusion of programmes on television and radio, and the presentation of much useful material in special displays, such as

* Details can be obtained from H. G. Earnshaw, Senior Assistant Secretary, AEB, Wellington House, Aldershot.

† London: Edward Arnold.

‡ London: Macmillan.

those listed in the British Tourist Authority's full catalogue of Anglo-American 'happenings' this year.

There is clearly no danger of Americana monopolizing the curriculum in our schools, but there are already some stimulating future challenges present in the opportunities for comparative studies in Anglo-American history, and in the development of Canadian studies. European and world themes have a strong claim on our attention although one form of reconciliation is suggested by the School of Oriental and African Studies' excellent syllabus in world history and their accompanying books.

American studies in our schools touch on issues of the greatest concern like democracy in political theory and practice, war and peace, race relations, the situation and feelings of the adolescent. They are not notably highbrow and they have strong links with mass culture in film, television, entertainment and humour. They can be thoroughly enjoyed and profitably studied with no loss of academic standards at all levels, ages and abilities from the first years to the scholarship sixth forms. Let us hope that this Bicentennial year will see another step forward in the exploration and expansion of American themes.

Trends 1976/3

Secondary education in Britain and the United States: a comparative view

KENNETH CLARK

American exchange teacher

It is often said that education in Britain is radically different from that in the United States. Undoubtedly, there are many differences but in the nine months that I have been living and teaching in Britain I have found many more similarities than differences in the two systems. Having attended a high school in a small town in New York State, a University in New England, and with five years' teaching experience in Providence, Rhode Island and Miami, Florida, I have been fortunate in seeing a cross-section of education in the United States. These experiences lead me to think that it is dangerous to generalize about secondary education in America.

Even two schools in Florida may vary greatly, and since education is a function of the state government in the United States, differences in state policies cause secondary education to vary substantially from one state to another. Thus any comparison I make between British and American secondary education will have to be seen in the light of the limitations of a generalization based on my necessarily restricted view of the British and American educational systems.

General appearance

Even before I joined the staff of Selwyn Jones High School in Merseyside, I was aware of a striking difference in the appearance of the British high school student — school uniform. (The wearing of uniforms by students in the United States is generally limited to military academies and certain private schools.) The fact that uniforms are worn by all students in a school does, to some degree, minimize the influence of the economic backgrounds from which students come, and thus does have some merit. On reaching the door, a neatly dressed student hesitates and holds the door open for me, and greets me with a polite, 'Hello, sir'. Another surprise! Though good manners are not uncommon among American students, a certain added degree of formality and respect seems to accompany the British students' approach to their teachers.

Selwyn Jones High School, like many other British comprehensives, seems to be following the American trend towards mass education at large schools. An unfortunate consequence of this is the increasingly impersonal nature of our schools. As class and school sizes increase, the chance of teacher-student contact developing beyond a superficial level is greatly reduced. Coupled with this is the fact that, since most students at a large secondary school have to be 'bused' in to school, they are forced to arrive just before school and to depart immediately thereafter. This again tends to limit teacher-student contact, either at the academic or extra-curricular level.

Interestingly enough, British and American secondary schools have dealt with this and other problems through markedly different approaches to the school timetable. British schools tend to divide class time into four blocks, spaced by two ten-to-fifteen-minute breaks plus an hour and fifteen minutes for lunch. This allows time during the school day for student-teacher contact or for extra-curricular activities. Most American timetables, however, tend to have six to eight forty-five minute classes separated by five-minute breaks with about forty-five minutes for lunch. By compressing the timetable in this way, and by starting school earlier in the morning, school finishes earlier in the afternoon. Thus, American students generally pursue in the after-school hours those interests which British students must make time for during the school day.

A similar difference exists in the arrangement of the school calendars. It is common in Britain for the school year to be broken up by three one-week half term holidays in addition to a two-week holiday at Christmas and Easter. This format divides the school year nicely, limiting each half of the term to six or seven weeks while reducing the summer holiday to about six or seven weeks. In America, the school calendar is compressed in much the same way as each school day.

The only major holidays are ten days to two weeks at Christmas and Easter, with several long week-ends including three days' holiday at Thanksgiving. The result is a longer summer holiday, but the cost of this benefit is high. The effect of long terms at school without a break seems to be both psychologically and emotionally unfavourable to students and teachers alike. Particularly during the twelve weeks from Christmas to Easter, problems of discipline and student apathy towards their work seem directly related to the exhausting length of the term. This is one reason why the British scheme of having holidays at more regular intervals is far more efficacious than the American schedule. The only area of scheduling where the American system seems more equitable is that of teacher preparation. American high school students have the same class at the same time each day, thus classes meet five times rather than three times each week. However, teachers generally have only two preparations per day. For example, a French teacher may teach three French I classes and two French II classes, five days per week, demanding a total of ten lessons to prepare each week. In British schools, it is common for teachers to have seven different classes three times per week, resulting in twenty-one preparations each week. This means that British teachers must prepare virtually twice the number of lessons per week as their American counterparts.

Philosophy

With the advent of the comprehensive school in Britain, a philosophical struggle seems to have developed over the very purpose of secondary education. Most American schools, for better or worse, have accepted the fact that secondary education is a right to be afforded to all youngsters. Along with this acceptance has come a gradual move towards making the high school experience as realistic and as practical as possible. In contrast, many British comprehensives are staffed by former grammar school teachers who still adhere to a more classical concept of education. In keeping with this, much of Britain's comprehensive education remains geared to the brighter or more academically inclined students. However, recent measures have led to the development of more courses for the non-examination and CSE students. It seems that since comprehensive education is relatively new in

Britain, secondary education is presently going through a period of transition and development. As more emphasis is being placed on the education of all students, a better-balanced curriculum is gradually developing through the contributions and support of a growing number of teachers and administrators.

The power structure: headmaster/US principal

While differences between American high schools can often be traced to policy differences established at the county or state level, British schools tend to vary according to the philosophies of the headmaster. More power is vested in the headmaster than in the principal, particularly in the areas of curriculum, organization and discipline. A headmaster can decide on what course to offer, how classes will be grouped, whether corporal punishment will be administered, and even how the school will be staffed. An American principal is more an administrator than a policy-maker. Many of the policies to be implemented at the school are handed down and he must work closely with both state and local officials in areas of curriculum, staffing, discipline, and budget expenditures.

Curriculum

In Britain, the system of external exams (both CSE and GCE) has led to a necessary standardization of the basic course content in many areas. As a result, teachers of examination courses are required to follow a curriculum which will prepare students to cope with these exams. It follows that flexibility and innovation in curriculum are generally restricted. In the United States, with the exception of New York State, examinations are formulated at the school level, leaving each department the latitude to design such courses and exams as will meet the current needs and interests of the students. While sacrificing standardization, this system does permit more creative and varied approaches to the curriculum. Although a state may dictate what courses are required to obtain a high school diploma, a given school may design a number of different courses within each subject area to allow students to meet the requirements for graduation.

This system is adaptable to students of varied academic backgrounds in that it affords a range of course choices, relating directly to student interests and needs; for example, a student who is weak in mathematics may obtain his required mathematics credit for graduation by taking a remedial maths workshop. Meanwhile a brighter student may be taking a calculus course. In this way, both students are able to meet the requirements for graduation and receive a high school diploma. This diploma, awarded on the successful completion of a minimum of required courses, gives students a better chance of obtaining a good job. While a diploma is also necessary for students pursuing higher education, these

students are usually required to take two batteries of tests, the Scholastic Achievement Test (SAT) and the examinations of the College Boards. These tests, formulated by two nationally recognized testing services, assess the verbal and mathematical skills of potential college students.

A particular advantage of making a high school diploma an accessible and valuable goal for all students is that it tends to motivate the less able students while reducing discipline problems. Since students know that they must pass all required courses to obtain a diploma, they tend to work harder and behave better so as to obtain this tangible reward. Although British schools do not give diplomas as such, an expansion of the CSE options has encouraged more students to take CSE courses, either Mode 1 or Mode 3.

At Selwyn Jones High School, for example, CSE Mode 3 courses have been designed for art and design, physical education, drama and music. Other curricular innovations include crossover courses in commerce in which students can take typing or shorthand at the local college of further education.

Another realistic innovation which has improved school morale in America is a work-study programme for students in their last years of high school through which they are able to come to school part-time solely to take the required courses. At the same time, they may hold either a part-time or full-time job, and still graduate with their class.

The only comparable British scheme is Project Trident which combines work experience with community service and personal growth activities. Although a more varied and far-reaching programme, Project Trident does not allow the students to hold an actual paying job; the three weeks of work experience are strictly educational. I believe that by the age of 15, many students not only want, but need, to be working. The responsibility of a job seems to imbue students with an increased sense of self-worth and achievement which may fill an important gap for those students who have not met with academic success in the classroom.

Extra-curricular activities

Most high schools in America offer a wide range of extra-curricular activities. Foremost among these is an extensive inter-scholastic sports programme. At Hialech Miami Lakes High School in Florida, where I have been teaching for the past four years, the sports offered include golf, wrestling, soccer, ten-pin bowling, and track as well as the traditional baseball, basketball, and football. But the athletic programme does not end with the players; sporting events attract a great deal of school and community interest which builds up a sense of pride and tradition in a school. Also, many students are motivated by their involvement in school sports to work harder and to behave in class. The possibility of being

kicked off a team because of bad grades or poor behaviour in class has an amazing effect on students.

Apart from sports, extra-curricular activities fall into two major groups — service clubs and interest clubs. Service clubs do just what their name suggests: they serve the school and community through various civic activities. Interest clubs at Hialech Miami Lakes High School range from photography to the school band and include such things as electronics, drama, a marching band, and astronomy. While service clubs encourage the growth of community involvement, interest clubs allow students to explore and pursue their individual talents. As a secondary benefit, extra curricular activities of all types act as a self-guidance service within the school. Through involvement, students are encouraged to discover new interests and to develop existing ones.

Finally, as in the work-study programme, students who participate in extra-curricular activities are afforded another avenue for self-fulfilment and success which is so essential to personal growth. As I have already mentioned, the compactness of the school day in America allows time for the activities programme.

In British comprehensive schools, extra-curricular activities also play an important role, though possibly on a more limited scale. As in America, the emphasis is on sports. At Selwyn Jones the availability of a swimming pool has granted students an added opportunity. In addition to soccer, rugby, and cricket, swimming and life-saving have become popular both in and out of school and have broadened the scope of the sports programme. In addition a drama group and a band encourage students to pursue their theatrical and musical talents. Further social and charitable activities have been generated through the new house system at Selwyn Jones. All students belong to one of three houses which join in competitive activities and have come together for a school-wide sponsored walk this year.

External influences

In both Britain and America, many forces affect the course of public education — for example, the politics of a region may dictate whether a school uses a comprehensive or a traditional approach. More subtle influences are also noteworthy. In Britain the system of teacher promotion through the different scales has created a problem not evident in America. In seeking a promotion from one scale to another, many teachers choose to change schools which has an obviously disruptive effect on the continuity of school programmes. Students in particular suffer during the period of adaptation to new teaching techniques and different personalities.

In America, pay promotions are attained in only two ways — through years of experience and through the completion of additional university courses. As a result, there is no incentive for

teachers to change schools. Instead, teachers are encouraged to continue their own education which is beneficial to the vitality of the educational programme. In fact, most American systems have a teacher certification plan whereby to renew a teaching certificate, additional university course work must be completed every three to five years. This encourages teachers to keep abreast of the rapid changes in education, to incorporate new approaches in their teaching, and to look for new ideas in their field.

The lack of continued teacher education in the British system seems to have encouraged the maintenance of a traditional approach in education. Evidence of this can be seen in the split between the grammar school and comprehensive school philosophy. An apparent reason for the problems which have arisen in the transition from the grammar school to the comprehensive is that little has been done to prepare and assist teachers in making the change. A programme of continued teacher education could have aided teachers in making such a radical change.

A final influence felt on both sides of the ocean is the reluctance of school systems to adapt their pay policies to a realistic level. It is only within the past few years that teachers' salaries have improved, and yet they still remain discouragingly low. If capable people are to be attracted into the teaching profession, salaries must be made more competitive in relation to other professions.

Two hundred years on

It is interesting that after 200 years of independence, the United States has developed a system of education so strikingly similar to that of Britain. Also, the trend towards comprehensive education in both countries seems to be aiding the development of even more areas of common ground. Problems of curriculum design, grouping, and discipline which concern the educators in America are also being dealt with by their British counterparts. I hope that the similarity of our two systems is indicative of a mutual growth towards a truly successful form of secondary education.

A comparison of educational methods in English and American elementary schools

BARBARA GOODYEAR

Headmistress, Pangbourne Infants School, Berkshire.* At the time of the exchange, the author was Head of the Infant Department, Kingsclere Primary School, Hampshire.

The purpose and objectives of state education in the United States are not unlike those of England and Wales but they are administered in different ways. While there are a few Federal laws and some state laws relating to education, the bulk of policy-making is done at grass roots level. The stability or otherwise of a school system depends upon the amount of 'millage' passed; that is the percentage of tax money that each area votes to be allocated to education. In some districts this vote is taken annually and in others every two years. It not only determines the amount of money to be spent on school equipment but also the number of teachers and what their salary will be. The teachers' unions have recently become very militant in this area (they were amazed to hear about the Burnham Scale and a national pay policy). American teachers' salaries are renegotiated each summer and it is not uncommon for the start of term to be delayed until both sides agree. The school superintendent (cf the Divisional Education Officer) is at his busiest during the long summer vacation convincing the local community to pass the millage at the election. As a result of the millage not being passed completely in the year prior to my visit, the programmes for music, art, and physical education were deleted from the syllabus for that year, and as a result there were some staff redundancies.

Teachers responsible for an actual class have better security of tenure. Because of the enormous surplus of teachers in the USA, many student unions are complaining that the tenure laws prevent newly qualified teachers from getting a chance to attempt their probationary period. (The probationary period, in my area at any rate, was two years and not one year as in England.) Many of the recommendations of the James Report were being implemented during this two-year period (when students were able to obtain a

* The author spent the 1974-75 academic year in the United States at Lakeland Elementary School, Elk Rapids, Michigan, on an exchange programme organized by the Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges. The comparisons in this article are limited to the two schools concerned in the exchange and the views expressed may not be true of other school systems.

position). This security of tenure did not apply to school principals, whose contracts were reassessed annually. Some school systems had a constant turnover which resulted in very poor stability within the school. In my school system there was no deputy principal and no system of graded posts such as we have in England. On days when the principal was absent, the class teachers acted as substitute principal on a rota basis. However, this was not just a caretaker government; substitute principals, even if only in office for a couple of days, could take important decisions.

Substitute teachers

Because there is no national health scheme, the attitude towards illness and absences was very different from that in England, the surplus of teachers available for supply work being a contributory factor. Every teacher was allowed ten sick days per year which could be carried forward to successive years up to a total of ninety days. Each member of staff contributed two sick days annually to a 'kitty' and these could be used up by anyone with a prolonged illness. It was considered quite in order to take a sick day for 'rest and recuperation' (R and R) or even to take a day off to prevent any remaining sick days being carried over to the next school year. Most of the English exchange teachers felt uneasy about this practice. It was not difficult to administer under the American system because each teacher had to leave a detailed lesson plan forecast book on the desk each evening and all the children would do the same duplicated worksheets. The teachers' manuals relating to the worksheets were so detailed that anyone who could read could 'substitute teach'. There were two very positive advantages in this. Firstly, no teacher staying away from school had to worry that a colleague might have to teach a doubled-up class and secondly, no teacher who was feeling unwell but not actually ill enough to be in bed ever struggled into school. In England, and in the spring term in particular, I have often felt that although many of the staff were not completely fit no one would take time off and leave an equally ill colleague to cope with a double class. There could even come a point where the school ceased to function efficiently. The American staff, both teaching and non-teaching were also allowed two 'business days' per year, again with substitute teacher cover. It was interesting to note that substitute teachers were only paid two-thirds of the regular daily amount of class teachers, whereas in England supply teachers earn a higher daily rate.

Kindergarten policy

The kindergarten programme in the United States is a voluntary one; some of the poorer states do not even provide kindergarten education. The term kindergarten in America covers the lower age range of the English infant school and not the younger age range, say of 3-4-plus, catered for by the English kindergarten.

Although it is voluntary, most parents enrol their children. Four of the children in my kindergarten class were older than the rest because their parents had not considered that they were sufficiently mature to attend the previous year. Compulsory education starts at 6½ and as there is only a September intake, this is interpreted as the start of the First Grade.

Limitations of a half-day programme

The most striking feature of the kindergarten programme was that it was based upon half-day sessions with two separate groups of children using the same buildings and facilities. The children were only in school for three hours each day and this included a twenty-minute playtime, a fifteen-minute 'nap' period and also time for 'snack'. The 'snack' period was a formal social occasion in which the whole class participated and the parents provided the food on a rota basis. Although the children suffered no apparent ill effects when I discontinued the nap period, the parents were very apprehensive of such a spartan attitude. I was asked to introduce English infant school methods into the kindergarten, and in particular to demonstrate how children could be taught on an individual basis. With such a short teaching time available each day, this was difficult to achieve. Because of the imposed half-day system I had twice the number of children to get to know and only half the time in which to do this. The shortness of each session meant that the activities had to be more structured and highly pressured and it was impossible to give the children the freedom of choice that they enjoy in England, or even in many instances to allow them to work through a topic until its conclusion. Inevitably interest had flagged by the next day and I was very aware that the completed work was not of as high a standard as that of a comparable age group in England where the children are in school for a complete day. I also found that there was little time available in the short high-powered session just to hold a conversation with a child.

Language arts

Until very recently American kindergartens were regarded primarily as places of social interaction; purely academic skills, such as reading in particular, would not have been introduced until the First Grade. The reading programme in my exchange school had only been introduced in the year before I arrived. There was a certain amount of pre-reading and reading readiness material and this was used by all the children regardless of their level of ability. Similarly all the children were started on the reading scheme at the same time and were presumably supposed to progress at the same speed. It was considered progressive to divide the class into groups for reading and my own individual approach was felt to be quite unorthodox. There was just one basic text which gave

little scope for different levels of interest; this was particularly low among the boys. Even the first pre-primer book had eighty-three pages so that the children did not have the pleasure of finishing a book quickly and of being able to make a new start, as English children can.

Progress was further hampered because the children began to read without having first acquired a flashcard vocabulary which would have enabled them to complete their first book without hesitation. American children learn letter names as opposed to letter sounds and this too created problems when phonics were introduced (the vowel sound differences in my accent caused them further difficulties). The teachers' manuals for the reading scheme were extremely comprehensive as were all the other teachers' manuals. Although to an experienced teacher some of the instructions and follow-up suggestions would appear unnecessary, it was clear that something similar could be used to good advantage in England where there is a periodic outcry about newly qualified teachers being unable to teach reading. Creative writing was not taught until the end of the First Grade and was not closely connected with the reading lessons. Initially, a class-dictated caption would be copied from the board with every piece of work being done on separate sheets of paper which were graded and then taken home. This was a great disadvantage when I introduced the children to written news and 'story and picture' exercises as they were unable to look back and consolidate the vocabulary they had used the previous day.

Handwriting skills

The American children were introduced to lined paper at a fairly early stage. The lines on sheets of paper about fifteen inches wide were five-eighths of an inch apart, with a dotted line half-way between. To many English teachers this would seem a retrograde step. At first I was very doubtful about its value, having believed for sixteen years that infant children fare better on unlined paper. However, I would now be strongly in favour of using such paper in England, if only it were available. At the end of the year very few children formed letters incorrectly and had very little difficulty in positioning such letters as y, p, d, g, and j. The children had ample opportunity to write on unlined paper and the results were far superior to the attempts made by English children who have not had to make the transition between the two types of paper. My only criticism is that the American children were still using this large paper and writing in such large print until they were about eight or nine when their eye-span was clearly accustomed to reading many more words per line and when the laborious nature of the large print impeded the flow of their creative writing.

New maths

The new maths scheme is being introduced to American schools in much the same way as in England. However, I found that the American school had concentrated much more on printed and duplicated papers and on sets of textbooks whereas the English school was much better equipped with structural apparatus. This is, of course, a reflection on the way that the subject is being taught. The American worksheets are not tailored to individual learning needs and in reality aim somewhere below the average potential attainment level for the class. On the other hand, the scheme was completely structured and there was no danger of a step being omitted. The advantages of this were somewhat lost in that the papers were taken home each night and the next stage introduced the following day, leaving little opportunity for a teaching situation in any of the areas in which a child was experiencing difficulty, or for children to work through a mathematical concept with concrete numbers and apparatus.

Integration of curriculum

There was little interrelation between the various subjects in the curriculum and this made it difficult to introduce a fully integrated day. For example, there was no connexion between reading and written English. Art and physical education were taught by specialist teachers following a set weekly lesson plan which gave little scope for linking these subjects with the day-to-day happenings and interests of a kindergarten class. This also meant that the teacher was unable to share her own talents and interests fully with her own class or the rest of the school. Another quite separate part of the curriculum was the school outing which was held much more frequently than it normally is in England— usually once a month. They were not educational outings as we know them, but completely recreational, involving such activities as cooking breakfast by the lake-shore or ice fishing. These were quite isolated events with no classroom preparation or follow-up.

Parent-teacher relationships

Working with American parents was one of the most rewarding aspects of the exchange year for me. Almost all of the parents were actively interested in their children's progress and I found them to be more constructive than English parents over a child's learning or behaviour problem. The children were bused in over a 200 square mile area which made 'school gate' contact with parents (to iron out day-to-day minor problems) an impossibility, but I quickly became accustomed to the system of free local telephone calls and solved the problem in this way. I also sent out a weekly newsletter which I found to be invaluable. This did not just appeal for toilet roll centres or yoghurt pots but assessed critically the group projects covered that week and suggested ways

in which the parents could extend the activity if they wished. Where an activity had not been successful, I was able to say whether I would be approaching it from another angle or would be abandoning it. This was very important because the children always took their graded work papers home and I felt that parents should know if there was a reason for the children finding a particular paper difficult. However, the parents always responded cooperatively to the contents of the newsletters which resulted in an enriched learning situation for the children.

Parents' evenings: reports

Parent/teacher conferences and principal/teacher conferences were another area in which I felt the American system to be superior. In each case, both parties prepared a written list of strengths and weaknesses. At the conference both lists were discussed and one written summary compiled. This included recommendations to be followed by each party about developing the strengths to the full and giving remedial help to the weaknesses. I found it challenging to assess my own teaching performance in this way and felt that the parents contributed a great deal more than at an English parent/teacher conference. The timetabling of these conferences had much to recommend it from both the teachers' and the parents' point of view. They were spread across two days and two evenings, thus giving each conference privacy and adequate time. Fifteen minutes were allowed for each interview, with a scheduled five minutes between each and a short coffee break after four interviews.

Maturity of children

I found American children entering school were physically much taller than their British counterparts, making some normal reception class activities inappropriate. This was partly accounted for by not having a three-term entry as some of the children were over 6 when they started. I also found that they were verbally more precocious and much more able to cope with their dressing and bathroom needs, possibly because they spend more time than British children in the care of baby-sitters and adults other than their parents. I therefore found it anomalous that the kindergarten system tended very much to 'baby' the children. For example, notes to parents were always pinned to the children and the classroom aides were very surprised when I asked them to allow the children to put on their own coats.

It seems to me that in America it is the child's own responsibility to learn, but in England it is the responsibility of the teacher to provide a good learning situation. I sincerely feel that a good teacher in the English system will produce results far superior to those achieved by her American counterpart, with both slow

learning and accelerated pupils developing their potential to the full. In America the emphasis is on getting the maximum number of pupils to reach the required grade level. Failing to graduate from kindergarten is a hard concept for an English teacher to understand. On the other hand, I feel that a bad teacher under the English system is capable of doing infinitely more harm than a bad American teacher. I hope that through the exchange programmes like the one in which I took part each educational system will be able to draw upon its exchange country's resources to remedy its weak points and consolidate its strong ones.

Trends 1976/3

Decentralization and community involvement in the school system — the example of Detroit

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The concept of decentralization, the breaking-up of a large, bureaucratic school system into smaller units that become more directly responsive to the concerns of the local community, is not as new in American education as the current protagonists of centralization would have us believe.

During the past fifteen years, legislators and educators in major cities have begun to re-examine, study, and evaluate the implications decentralization has for present-day society and its school problems. The results of some self-studies carried out by school districts in North America ranged from mild to total rejection of decentralization. Common elements of the proposed and existing decentralization plans for the twenty cities studied were:

citizen participation in the decision-making process at the community level;
cooperative partnership between parent and professional educators;
increased understanding through better communications among groups;

a decrease in the monopoly of decisions currently made by school boards or central staff personnel;
operation responsibilities delegated to the community.

Decentralization in Detroit

Some of these concepts of decentralization have existed in Detroit, Michigan since 1970. At that time, Public Act 48, passed by the Michigan State Legislature, provided a new structure which affected central administration, and brought about the formation of a new regional administration and local school community councils. Detroit, a first class school district, was divided into eight regions with an elected region board consisting of five people, and a region superintendent directly responsible to that board. The person who received the greatest number of votes on each board automatically became the region board chairman and a member of the Detroit Central Board of Education. In addition, five members-at-large were elected to the Central Board. Under Public Act 48, the thirteen-member Central Board has final legal authority over budget and purchasing; housing and school construction; negotiations and personnel; maintenance of staff racial balance; special education; fund raising; and delivery of some educational services.

Region boards have authority over the curriculum; selection and tenure of the region superintendent; the use of region school buildings; planning the region budget based on funds allocated by the Central Board; and certain personnel assignments subject to Central Board policies.

Local school community councils (LSCC) have been formed to provide a democratic vehicle for effective neighbourhood participation in the decision-making processes for the local school. Their members are representative of the local school community, and consist of persons living or working within the boundaries of that designated school community. A significant aspect of the decentralization guidelines is that local community councils were free to adapt them or construct new ones to meet their particular situation provided that the democratic process prevailed.

As a result of these flexible guidelines, the number of members and the composition of community councils varied from region to region and, indeed, from school to school. The composition of councils, however, provided the means by which leadership and authority were vested in parents, with paraprofessionals playing a significant role. Professional staffs and students, while serving on most councils, are usually subordinate in number and power to the predominant parent-paraprofessional membership.

Objectives and functions

The organizational structures of community councils differ sharply, but their broad general objectives and functions are similar.

The objectives of school community councils are:

to provide the means by which the community may engage democratically in decision-making over the education of children and adults;
to enlist community support and utilize community resources for the schools;
to achieve education of maximum quality in the local school, and to carry on a continuing evaluation of the educational process to ensure this;
to work with teachers and administrators on any problems that may arise in the local school community and when necessary to provide a line of communication to the region board;
to report on the educational process in the local school community to the region board;
and to serve as a resource of first-hand knowledge of the local school community for the region board.

Their functions are:

to serve as a liaison between the local school community and the local schools;
to serve as a liaison between the local schools community and the region board;
to assist in determining specific needs of the local school;
to assist in determining general goals for the local school;
to advise the region board as to how specific goals and needs can be met;
to assist in evaluating the accomplishment of established goals and objectives.

Decentralization and the urban university

Decentralization has provided a new challenge and opportunity for an urban university to become involved in helping local citizens to develop additional skills and competencies so as to build a better educational community. Wayne State University, through the College of Education, runs short-term leadership conferences and workshops for community council members from the Detroit school system. The primary purpose of these workshops, which have been in existence for three years, has been to develop a structured training programme to help citizens become successful, functional community council members.

Emerging from these conferences and workshops has been the realization that training for effective community involvement requires all participants to develop new competencies and skills. This has led the staff at Wayne State University to design, field test, evaluate, and modify an in-service training model. The sequence of activities and steps in the model are as follows:

General orientation. The first step in the sequence provides all participants with a general introduction to decentralization and the role of community councils. This step is designed to help participants perceive community involvement as a desirable way of improving the quality of education in the district. The objectives and functions of the skills needed to score on community councils are defined and clarified. Questions about decentralization and community councils are answered.

Orientation to group role. Step two involves orienting various homogeneous staff and community people to their specific roles and responsibilities to make decentralization and community involvement a success for the group they each represent.

Individual needs assessment. Administrators, teachers, and community people take part in assessing individual needs. The competencies, skills, knowledge, and resources needed to implement school community involvement successfully are identified.

Competency areas. Areas in which competencies were developed are:

Organizational training: goal-setting; facility in communication; improvement of group procedures and of meetings; techniques; problem-solving; decision-making; assessment of change; conflict management;

School administration: school law; school finance; negotiation procedures; federal and state budgets; state and federal projects; orientation to elementary, middle, junior high, and high schools.

Students: student rights; student problems, discipline and citizenship;

Curriculum: criteria for evaluating past, present, and new materials; methods and theories related to improvement of instruction; improvement of the quality of education; current issues.

School-community relations

The tremendous growth in community involvement in Detroit has helped to improve school-community relations. Involvement demanded the acceptance of responsibilities on the part of each person and group in the delineation of their role and function; the assessment of individual and group needs; and the development of competencies in new areas. As a result, the meaning and process of accountability became familiar to each person. The challenges of exploring new areas and of learning more about the total educational system are ones which the Detroit community welcomed and benefited from. The effectiveness of decentralization and of its components does and will continue to require the use of the resources and the cooperation of the urban university, the public schools, and the community working towards a common goal — the best educational climate and environment for all students.

National assessment of educational progress in the United States

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The national assessment of educational progress in the United States originated in 1962 when a series of conferences was held to explore ways of providing better information about the quality of educational outcomes. In 1964, the Exploratory Committee on Assessing the Progress of Education (ECAPE) was set up to examine the possibility of conducting an assessment of educational attainment on a national basis. After much study, it was decided that such an assessment was feasible, and the Committee (which by now had dropped the word 'Exploratory' from its title) instituted the first programme of assessment in 1969 under the auspices of the Carnegie Corporation. In the same year, the project became the responsibility of the United States Education Commission; it received its first main funding from the United States Office of Education, and was renamed the National Assessment of Educational Progress.

Initial opposition

Initially, there was deep suspicion and some opposition to the idea of a national survey of educational outcomes, particularly from some teacher unions and the American Association of School Administrators. This was based on three factors: the fear that the tests would have a harmful effect on the curriculum of schools; that a federal testing programme might infringe state and local responsibilities; and that it might make possible an invidious comparison between one state, district, or school and another. The opposition was appeased by what in retrospect must be judged to be a series of statesmanlike moves. First, the sampling of the national survey was so designed that complete confidentiality was ensured for all the schools involved. No individual child, teacher, school, district, or state could be identified. The only geographical division recorded was the breakdown of the USA into four areas — North-East, South-East, Central and West.

Secondly, the organizing committee was greatly enlarged and the survey's chief opponents given a place on it. Opposition largely died away at that point, despite there being no discernible change of policy. Since that time, though there has been some criticism of the testing techniques and material, there has been very little opposition to the concept of countrywide testing of educational achievement. Indeed, ironically, NAEP is now being blamed for being unable to supply information deliberately excluded in the setting up of the sampling frame because of early criticism.

Sound information

The main goals set before NAEP were all aimed at securing sound information on which educational decision-makers and practitioners could base their judgements and decide their policies. It was to measure any changes that might be taking place in the educational attainments of young people, as well as to provide information about these achievements in absolute terms; to carry out 'probes' into areas of particular concern at any time; and to report its findings at different levels of sophistication appropriate to a range of audiences.

The outcome is a series of national surveys applied to a small, carefully structured sample of boys and girls at the ages of 9, 13 and 17 and to 'young adults' between the ages of 25 and 35. Care has been taken to ensure that pupils in the 17 year old age group who have 'dropped out' of the school system are included as well as those still at school. Person-to-person testing is carried out on these and the young adults. In each of the first three groups, the sample approaches 30,000 in number though, as explained later, not all pupils take the same set of test items.

Assessment has now been carried out across the age groups in ten areas of the curriculum, some of them representing an expansion into fields where little testing had previously been carried out: reading, writing, literature, mathematics, science, social studies, citizenship, career and occupational development, art and music. Normally about two areas are chosen each year so that theoretically there is a five-year cycle. In practice, public concern about some areas has resulted in their being given a higher priority. Thus art and music have each been tested once, while science is about to be tested for a third time. Within each area, teaching objectives are defined as a result of extensive discussion and wide consultation. The aim is to obtain a broad consensus of views of the achievements that may be expected of pupils of different abilities at different age levels. Some items are designed to be within the capacity of the least able pupils, others to be within the range of only the ablest, while most are meant to reflect the expected achievements of the great majority of pupils.

The 'exercises' (the term is used by NAEP to stress the difference between its testing material and the traditional standardized test items) are developed to cover the objectives as fully as possible, and pre-tested on a fairly small scale. The resulting material, after the unsatisfactory items have been discarded, is divided into a number of 'packs' which are randomly distributed among the sample of pupils. This technique of 'matrix sampling', where a sample of pupils each responds to only a sample of the total test items, has been adopted so that a wide range of objectives can be tested without imposing too great a burden on any one child. A self-imposed condition from the beginning was that the involvement of any one child in school in the testing should be limited to about half-an-hour, or to what could be included in a single school period. Since the information sought is presented in a highly generalized form, the fact that any one pupil only covers a section of the total number of test items is immaterial.

Reporting back

The manner of reporting on the results of the surveys is interesting. Each item is regarded as representing a criterion of performance that pupils either meet satisfactorily or fail to meet, and results are given in the form of the percentage of pupils who meet each of them. The policy is for 50 per cent of the items to be released after each survey, the remainder being kept for the following survey. Fifty per cent of the pupils' achievement is reported in terms of the actual items which have been released. For those items which are not released, it is reported in terms of the criterion or objective which the item is designed to assess. The retained items form the nucleus of the next national assessment in the subject and provide a basis for comparison. Besides the national percentage of achievement, the performance of pupils is also reported on in relation to a number of different classifications which include the four broad areas of the country. Others are the pupils' sex, colour, place of abode (rural, city-centre, prosperous suburb) and the extent of their parents' education.

It is easy to fault some aspects of NAEP's work. There is always a danger that in defining educational outcomes strictly in terms of behavioural objectives the husk is preserved but the kernel is lost. Some of the objectives are rather trivial, and the exercises designed to test them correspondingly so. One is left, when looking at the items that have been released, with the feeling that either the aims of teachers in these curricular areas are very different in the United States of America than in this country, or that somehow or other the testers have missed the real point. But that is an impression created by many forms of testing, not excepting some of our own public examinations. It is very difficult to define precisely what outcomes one hopes

for within a given area of the curriculum for a given group of pupils. It is far more difficult to define the outcomes expected from pupils of a given age group in general, and even more so if the outcomes are not restricted to a single subject in the curriculum. Once defined, the problems of ensuring their valid and reliable assessment, and at the same time of using means which are not disproportionately expensive in time or money to the end in view, are formidable.

Attractive features

One of the attractive features of NAEP is its openness; it works (in a very American way) fully in the public eye. For each area covered by assessment, a pamphlet is published which gives the names of those most concerned in the development of objectives, outlines the procedure by which the objectives were agreed upon, and then lists them in full. Subsequently many of the actual test questions used are made public. This of course invites criticism which the 'closed' test avoids but it is a healthy situation especially when it leads to progress. Where assessment has been carried out for a second time, and where preparations are being made for a third round of assessment, there has been an impressive advance in the quality of the thinking underlying the test material.

There is a great deal to be learned by our own country from NAEP's example. The role of national assessment is sharply differentiated from that of state assessment. Many states in America have their own assessment programme which provides information about every pupil in certain age groups and about every school district. This may or may not be a desirable form of state control of education; it is certainly not an appropriate model for national control. In this country, LEAs are becoming more aware of the desirability of introducing assessment procedures that give them more information about the achievement of pupils in their schools; in some cases this amounts to the testing of all pupils in certain subjects and certain age categories. Any national monitoring that may arise as a result of the work of the Assessment of Performance Unit is likely to follow broadly the pattern of NAEP. The amount of information obtained by NAEP may be too small or too great, and certainly the type of information gained may not be immediately relevant for use in this country, but the general approach seems about right.

Broad assessment across the curriculum is again a practice to be followed in this country. Many of the American states started off with ambitious schemes of assessing large areas of the curriculum, but for a variety of reasons, not least the logistics of the legal requirement to test every pupil, they later fell back on a few 'basic skills'. The work carried out by NAEP in some areas, particularly music and art, may well leave much to be desired, but to have devised any practicable means of

assessing the performance of all pupils, and not those with the specialist interest in these fields, is something of an achievement. Certainly any attempt in this country to include the aesthetic aspects of the curriculum in a scheme of assessment would have much to learn from NAEP's experience. Perhaps, more fundamentally, the attempt to cover the curriculum broadly in terms of a number of subjects is less satisfactory than the approach suggested in an earlier issue of TRENDS*, in terms of cross-curricular lines of pupils' development.

Other aspects of NAEP's work which might well influence this country's thinking about national monitoring are the attempt to obtain a consensus view of the goals of educational programmes by a wide process of consultation; the use of an extensive range of assessment procedures, from the multiple-choice question to the person-to-person interview and observed practical test; the method of reporting in terms of the proportion of young people meeting a criterion of success rather than by aggregating individual pupils' performances in a number of items; and the reporting at different levels for different audiences.

At the deepest level, however, the central problems have still to be solved. As far as this country is concerned these might be to provide a full, rich, three-dimensional description of the purposes of education which will be generally accepted as valid by teachers and pupils, parents and politicians; to decide how the variety of expectation for the least able, the most able and the products of different cultures and different environments, can be allowed for within that description; and how, given the description, to assess the extent to which these purposes are being realized. These are problems which need to be solved afresh for any educational system. The work of NAEP in the last twelve years reveals many of the questions that need to be asked and suggests many of the answers appropriate to the USA, some, but not all, of which may be relevant to our own country. It also indicates some blind alleys which are not worth exploring further, and some of the mistakes that can be avoided as well as the successes that can be profited from.

* Kay, B. W. 'Monitoring Pupils' Performance'. *Trends in Education*, June 1975.

Reflections on the educational choices of fifth and sixth formers

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To what can we attribute the fall in the demand for higher education? What factors influence demand and how can they be identified? What, in fact, determines the decisions 16–18 year old pupils make about higher education?

The annual growth in the number of school leavers entering higher education has slackened in recent years and in the past year or two it has apparently been less than the growth in the size of the relevant age group.* One result of this diminishing rate of growth is that, in contrast to the 1960s when the number of people seeking places in higher education institutions was consistently higher than forecast, since 1970 the situation has been reversed and each year fewer young people than anticipated have been entering higher education.

The 'safe' way for planners to react to changes in the trend of demand for further and higher education is to make revised extrapolations in the light of the latest figures that become available. This is the procedure that has been followed since the publication of the Robbins Report in 1962 and it is not an unreasonable one. Provided that regular revisions are made, it is not likely that the planned provision and the actual demand will diverge by more than a very small amount. The results of these regular revisions are by now well known. The Robbins Committee predicted that there would be 558,000 full-time students in higher education in Great Britain in 1980-81 and it did so on the basis of its well-known criterion that 'courses of higher education should be available for all those who are qualified by ability and attainment to pursue them and who wish to do so'. This same criterion led to a projection in 1970† of 835,000 full-time students in 1981-82, a 'target' in the 1972 White Paper‡ of 750,000 full-time students,

* i.e. the age group where most entrants to higher education come from (18-19 year olds). The situation appears to have changed in 1975-76.

† Department of Education and Science. Student Numbers in Higher Education in England and Wales. *Education Planning Paper No. 2*, London: HMSO, 1970.

‡ *Education: A Framework for Expansion.* Cmnd 5174. London: HMSO, 1972.

and a revised target in the 1974-75 Public Expenditure White Paper* of 640,000. The Public Expenditure White Paper published in February 1976† announced that the Government had made provision for a total of 600,000 students by 1981 and it is not difficult to show that a further slackening of the 'staying-on rates' of pupils at the end of compulsory education, and the 'willingness (to enter higher education) rates' of qualified 18 year olds could lead to lower target figures.

The rolling approach

A problem with this rolling planning approach is that, in a period of changing trends in the apparent demand for higher education, it is likely that the planning of higher education will be dominated by short-term considerations of adjusting to the new projection. This is, of course, in addition to the short-term exigencies of the economic situation. The reason is quite straightforward. To take advantage of rolling planning the first priority each year must be to adjust for unexpected changes since the preceding year. Thus a target of 640,000 full-time students in 1981-82 implies intermediate targets for 1975, 1976, and so on. When in 1976 the target is revised to 600,000 (for whatever reasons), this implies a new set of intermediate targets which must take account of the progress which has been made towards earlier and higher targets.

What all this boils down to is that the earlier a change in trend can be identified with a reasonable degree of assurance, the more readily the supply of resources can be adjusted so as to minimize the difference between supply and demand. If it had been appreciated in 1965 that the downturn in the birthrate was going to last for at least a decade, or in 1969 that there was to be only a very slow increase in the demand for higher education for several years, it is almost certain that many of our present problems in further and higher education could have been avoided.

It is these considerations that lead to the search for reliable explanatory models of the demand for higher education rather than mere statistical manipulation of trends.

Growth of demand

There are clearly reasons for believing that the rate of growth of demand for higher education of the 1960s could in no circumstances have been sustained for very much longer and certainly not until the end of the present century.

If we consider the Robbins indicator of the proportion of the age group to obtain two or more A-level passes (in England and Wales) and observe it since 1962 (when the Robbins Report was

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* *Public Expenditure to 1978-79.* Cmnd 5879. London: HMSO, 1975.
† *Public Expenditure to 1979-80.* Cmnd 6393. London: HMSO, 1976.

published), the pattern that emerges is of a period of growth of about 8 per cent per year from 1962 to 1970, followed by a period when the growth rate fell to about 2 per cent per year. This tempts explanations based on the theory that there is some limit to the proportion of the population 'willing and able' to enter full-time post-secondary education. In its demolition of the claims about a limited pool-of-ability, the Robbins Committee did not claim that the pool was limitless, merely that 'we think that there is no risk that *within the next twenty years* the growth in the proportion of young people with qualifications and aptitudes suitable for entry to higher education will be restrained by a shortage of potential ability'.*

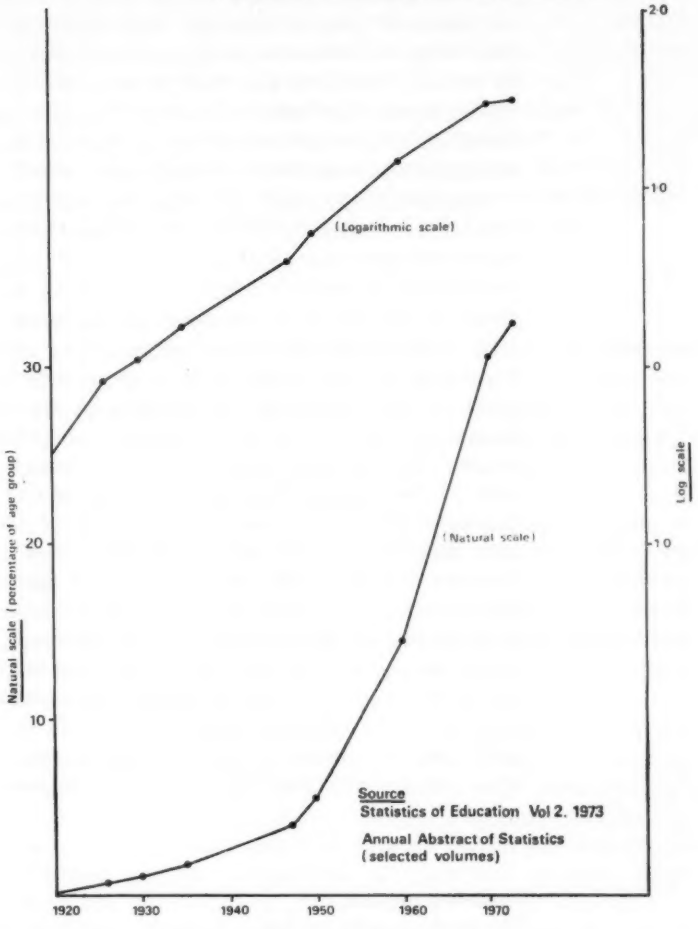
In fact, the proportion of young people obtaining the normal entry qualification for degree level courses (two or more A-level passes) in the early 1970s was rather above the Robbins prediction for the early 1980s. If we are prepared to take the view that young people go to the effort of acquiring A-levels mainly to obtain the qualification for entry to higher education, this suggests that we can no longer use the authority of the Robbins Committee to claim that there are necessarily many more potential entrants to traditional higher education who are qualified and willing to do so.

However, further reflections introduce new complications. The main basis of the Robbins rejection of pool-of-ability arguments was a comparison of participation in higher education of equally able young people from different social backgrounds. It was hoped that the expansion proposed would result in more children from manual working class backgrounds entering higher education. We now know, as far as the universities are concerned at least, that the *proportion* of entrants from this group has changed little and indeed has declined slightly since 1970. (We do not have similar statistics for the public sector of higher education.) Thus there is reason to suppose that the Robbins arguments for expansion on this score would remain as strong as ever as far as inherent ability is concerned. It is the 'willingness' of some groups at least that seems to have declined.

The argument swings back again somewhat if trends over a much longer period are examined. Diagram I shows the number of people entering GCE A-level examinations and the old Higher Certificate as a proportion of the number of births eighteen years earlier in selected years since 1920. This can be taken in some sense as an indicator of the demand for higher education, since the main reason for taking the examination is to qualify for entry to higher education. Clearly the rate of growth that was experienced from 1920 to 1970 could not have continued much longer. This can be seen most clearly when the information is plotted on the log scale at the top of the diagram. The exponential growth now becomes a log linear trend and this would clearly have reached

* Robbins Report, para. 146.

DIAGRAM ONE **Number of entrants per GCE A-level and Higher School Certificate Examinations 1920-1973**
(expressed as a percentage of births 18years earlier)



the top of the diagram, which equals 100 per cent of the age group in the mid 1980s.*

There are obvious dangers in interpreting statistics from a period over half a century ago as if they had the same significance as analogous indicators today. In particular, the absence of a national system of student grants in the pre-war period makes it likely that some young people who obtained the Higher School Certificate were unable to proceed to higher education for financial reasons. Conversely, however, some people who would have been

* However, in 1973 only 57 per cent of those taking A-levels were aged 18 and thus the approach to saturation is not so fast as would be implied by the artefact used for ease of projection.

able and willing to obtain a Higher Certificate may have preferred instead to go straight into an apprenticeship or other employment after compulsory education because they realized that there was no chance of going to university. It is impossible to know, therefore, if the earlier figures are high or low relative to the later ones. If we are prepared to take them at their face value as indicators of the demand for higher education, it is clear that the long-run trend *rate* of growth of school leavers qualified for entry to higher education could not have continued much longer.

Diagram I encourages the idea that the demand for higher education is bound to follow the S-shaped pattern common in many biological and social processes. Stone* uses the analogy of an epidemic. In the early stages of the outbreak the disease spreads slowly as the few people involved have a limited number of contacts. Subsequently the spread becomes more rapid, growing exponentially as each victim spreads the disease to a population which has not yet evolved any natural protection against it. Later, however, it becomes harder and harder to find uninfected people and the rate of growth tapers off. It is not difficult to accept some parts of this analogy. Families that have little or no experience of higher education are not likely to adopt the best strategies for their children to obtain higher education, even if they seek it. Teachers who have not been to university themselves will not have the contacts to help their pupils. Above all, to the great mass of the population higher education, like diphtheria, is a very rare occurrence and not one they think about very much. However, as that habit spreads, its growth becomes more rapid. Of course, resistance to the infection can be weakened by the use of student grants and the number of recorded cases increased by providing more institutions for those who have mild symptoms, and so on.

Epidemic models

The problem with epidemic models is explaining what causes the beginning and the end of the epidemic. Few epidemics start with a completely new virus and most end long before the whole population has been infected. Any analogous interpretation of the trends in the 'demand' for higher education must have an explanation of why the epidemic appears to be ending (or more precisely becoming 'endemic') at a time when only about one-sixth of the population at risk is being infected. The proportion is considerably lower, for example, than that in the United States, Canada, and Sweden, which are the other three major countries of the world that have so far reported a slackening demand for higher education.

* Stone, J. R. N. 'A Model for the Education System'. *Minerva*, Vol 3, No. 2, 1965.

The picture becomes even more complicated when the timing of the downturn of recent indicators of demand for higher education is examined. In 1969, the 'willingness rate' (i.e. the proportion of well-qualified school leavers to enter higher education directly) started to decline. Two years later the proportion of young people leaving school with two A-levels stabilized, and one year after that, the proportion of people staying on in education beyond the minimum school leaving age seems to have slackened off. This is exactly the opposite chronological ordering from what would be expected if the pool-of-ability was the prime reason for the change in trends because it starts with a drop in school leavers.

Attitudes survey

It was these kinds of consideration that lay behind the questions asked in a survey of the attitudes and perceptions of fifth and sixth formers in the summer of 1975. A summary of the preliminary findings of the survey have been published elsewhere* and a full report is in preparation. Only a very general survey of the main conclusions is reported here.

In setting up the enquiry Lord Crowther-Hunt, then Minister of State at the DES, pointed out that the falling-off in the demand for higher education can be attributed to two trends — the diminishing growth in the proportion of young people staying-on at school beyond the minimum school leaving age and the falling proportion of school leavers with GCE A-level passes seeking entry to higher education institutes.

There is no reason to suppose that the reasons for these two quite separate phenomena should be similar. The general findings of the survey were that the factors most closely associated with the slackening trend in post-compulsory staying-on were not the same as those which appear to have the biggest influence on the declining tendency of qualified 18 years olds to enter higher education.

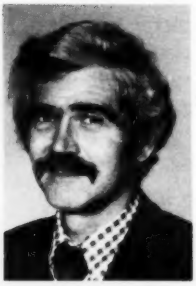
An association was found between intentions at the end of compulsory education and social class, and between academic orientation and perceptions of the economic benefits associated with different kinds of career. The 18 year olds formed a much more homogeneous group, and all these effects, though still present, were very much weaker. The slackening demand by 18 year olds appears more likely to be due to the greater ease of entry into higher education and the end of the frenetic scramble for entry that characterized the 1960s. In general, the decision about going on to higher education at 18 appears very much a subsidiary of the earlier decision at 16, despite the fact that staying-on means a change of institution.

**16 and 18 year olds: Attitudes to Education.* Report on Education No 86, July 1976. Available free from DES.

About one-third of the fifth form boys and one-sixth of the fifth form girls were neither 'hard-core leavers' nor 'hard-core stayers'. This is not, of course, to claim that nothing could make the hard-core leavers stay on or the definite stayers leave. It does mean that influences far back in a child's educational career and social background are affecting their decisions, and it is these, rather than marginal adjustments at the time of the minimum school leaving age, which determine the decision made at the end of compulsory education.

In general, there is evidence, at least among boys, that perceptions of earnings and career opportunities have some influence on their education decisions. While it is impossible to move from this to a claim that the *changes* in the growth of the demand for further and higher education are caused by changes in the private economic advantage of educational qualifications, this is at least a plausible hypothesis. To test the hypothesis it is necessary to collect more information and to examine how pupils' perceptions of economic benefits react to changes in actual benefits, and how quickly and to what extent their previous intentions change when their perceptions change. Longitudinal studies are required for both. It may, in the event, prove that policies for higher education based on individual demand for places, and policies based on labour market considerations, are not so much in conflict as some commentators have feared.

Trends 1976/3



One variation of 'Sixth Form in Association'

L. M. GANNON and K. R. STOTT

L. M. Gannon is Headmaster, St John Fisher R.C. High School, Harrogate
K. R. Stott is Headmaster, St Aidan's C.E. High School, Harrogate

Two denominational schools in Harrogate established in 1973 a 'Sixth Form in Association' which received students for the first time in the September of that year. This article describes how the scheme was set up and outlines its development and evolution into what may very well be a unique structure in sixth form education.

St John Fisher R.C. High School and St Aidan's C.E. High School are two 11 - 18 voluntary-aided denominational comprehensive schools sited conveniently close to each other. They accept Anglican and Roman Catholic children from a wide catchment area. St John Fisher High School is a five-form entry

school and St Aidan's is a seven-form entry school. Each one has its own governing body, headteacher, and staff who operate independently in the age range from 11 - 16 years, but function as a single, interchangeable unit at sixth form level in what is termed 'Sixth Form in Association'. The schools supply students to a singly structured sixth form which is housed in both stem schools. It has a single administration and organization structure which makes the best use of resource facilities, equipment and material, and there is an interchange of staff and students at sixth form level.

'Associated Sixth Forms' have been established in several parts of the country. Students of minority subjects interchange but the organization and administration of the contributory schools remains separate and independent. There are also many 'Joint Sixth Forms' where two or more 11 to 16 stem schools channel students requiring sixth form education to one single 'Joint Unit'. This usually operates in one of the contributory 11 to 16 schools or is housed in a separate sixth form unit or block.

Pre-planning

The planning of this venture started some eighteen months before the first students were received into the sixth form. Among the points we, as the two headmasters concerned, discussed at our early meetings were the strategy for presenting the plans to the LEA Secondary Reorganization Committee which was currently sitting in 1971, the arrangements for a joint meeting of Diocesan Education representatives of the respective denominations, and the setting up of a meeting of the respective governing bodies.

While awaiting policy approval, we discussed matters of administration and organization, such as the need for identical holiday dates and starting and finishing times, and the same forty-period week timetable structure. We also discussed capitation allowance arrangements, finance structure, staffing, registration, school meal arrangements, common policy on standards of work, dress, appearance, the provision and use of sixth form common rooms, and the quality and quantity of staffing provision. The problems of religious education, curriculum planning, and the need to appoint a coordinator or Director of Sixth Form education were also considered.

It was originally intended to accept students into the sixth form for the first time in September 1974 but the Chief Education Officer of the West Riding County Council suggested that the project should start in September 1973 so that it would be established before local government reorganization in April 1974. The West Riding County Council would cease to exist after that date and the new local education authority (North Yorkshire County Council) would experience sufficient early teething problems without taking on such a new venture as the 'Sixth Form in Association'.

Director of Sixth Form studies

A Director of Sixth Form Studies was appointed in April 1973 (one term before students were accepted) by a joint sub-committee of representatives of the governing bodies of both schools. The successful candidate was appointed to the staff of both schools (half time to each school). It is a senior teacher graded post, the points being taken equally from the graded score of both schools.

In the early stages, the Director of Sixth Form Studies was essentially a coordinator between the heads of department of both schools in the task of establishing curriculum planning, staffing policies and the initial requisition of goods and equipment. Gradually he became involved in timetable construction at deputy head level, and liaison work with staffs from both schools in setting up interviews for potential sixth formers.

Within the first term after receiving students, the role of the Director became more clearly defined. The post is one of considerable responsibility; it involves policy consultation with the headmasters and senior staff of both schools and the carrying out of such policy on curriculum, timetable, academic progress, routine administration, discipline, careers, and requisitioning. Unfortunately, such responsibility is not as yet recognized by Burnham other than at senior teacher level: there must be many similar situations that would warrant a salary at a level somewhere between that of senior teacher and deputy head, in keeping with the responsibility involved.

Curriculum and organization

The policy of an 'open sixth form' was adopted from the start and an attempt was made to fit the curriculum to the students' needs rather than to fit the students to the curricular structure; this presented administrative and organizational problems. The LEA, recognizing the initial problems, allowed a more generous staffing ratio so that courses could be established and double capitation allowance for the first year, together with a generous library book allowance. Special allowances in capitation and capital were made so that science (physics, chemistry and biology) could be adequately equipped and established.

The financial administration was simplified by requisitioning everything through St Aidan's account. The sixth form as a unit was coded separately and towards the end of the financial year a balance of accounts was made: the total amount was proportioned out based on the ratio of sixth formers in each school and St John Fisher's headmaster approved the transfer of the appropriate sum from his school's account to St Aidan's account; special grants have been handled through St Aidan's account. The internal distribution of finances is agreed by the headmasters after consultation with the departmental heads through the Sixth Form Director.

Departmental heads from both schools met on equal terms irrespective of their graded status within their own stem schools to set up syllabuses and to undertake responsibility for requisitioning appropriate books and equipment. An arbitration structure was set up in case of any disagreement between departmental heads; so far, this strucure has had to be used only on two occasions.

The sixth form benefited considerably from the expertise and high quality of the two staffs. The initial reticence of the staff has given way to free debate and discussion resulting in rethinking, redevelopment, and reappraisal.

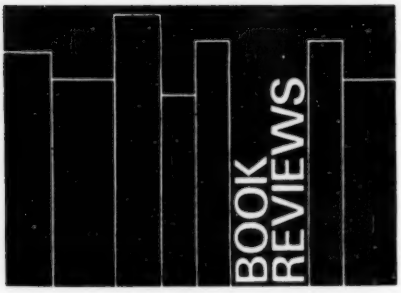
In the first year (1973-74) the courses offered to students led to GCE O- and A-level and CSE examinations. This proved to be unsatisfactory because it failed to offer students a widening curriculum (particularly non-A level students). It also failed to stretch students to their full capacity. One of the chief aims of sixth form education, other than the accumulation of examination successes, is to create an attitude and approach to learning that is self-disciplined, self-activated and self-motivated, irrespective of the individual student's ability level.

In 1974-75 it was decided that these aims and objectives could best be served by having two examination targets — GCE A-level and the Certificate of Extended Education (CEE). It was felt that offering A-level, CEE, or a mixture of both, would allow the whole ability range in the sixth form of about 140 students to be covered.

Exciting challenge

The numbers in the 'Sixth Form in Association' are expected to be 300 to about 350 when the comprehensive intakes reach the sixth form in 1977-78. We view this number as being an exciting and interesting challenge. Both schools are at the moment proceeding with programmes to meet this expected expansion — St Aidan's programme should be completed in October 1976 and St John Fisher's major building programme by September 1977.

The curriculum of the sixth form aims to express not only the Christian ideals inherent in the foundation of the two schools but also the comprehensive aspirations of recent reorganization and the powerful spirit of ecumenism that is being encouraged and practised.



Troublesome children in class
Irene Cashari
Routledge & Kegan Paul £2·95
£1·50 paperback
Beyond control?
Paul Francis
George Allen & Unwin Ltd £5·75
£2·85 paperback
The maintenance of order in the school community
Association of Assistant Mistresses

The Education Committee of the Association of Assistant Mistresses has produced a useful thirty page pamphlet on the controversial topic of discipline. Fourteen of these pages give the teachers a summary of where they stand in this matter. This is all solid, practical advice. The rest of the pamphlet contains examples of good practice embodied in school rules and other documents from real life. Naturally, the pamphlet is directed at teachers (and usefully so) but it shows much practical sympathy for pupils and their problems.

Irene Cashari and Paul Francis approach problems which are closely related, although not the same. The former is mainly concerned with troublesome children in class and she brings her own general teaching and research experiences to bear upon the problems. The latter writes mainly about, and for, teachers (though as they are in class there is plenty about children and, indeed, a chapter on 'Kids in Class'). The book is offered as a 'guide to survival' for young teachers based upon the author's own experiences. One author therefore is concerned mainly with control and the other with the diagnosis and solution of children's problems in class.

Both books are sympathetic and thoughtful. Irene Cashari is clearly an expert in her field and few experts write with so light a touch. Although she writes mainly about children and their stresses, she also deals with the stresses imposed upon teachers and those imposed by the school upon both teachers and pupils. It is good to see the causes of stress inside the school adequately dealt with.

Paul Francis is also fully aware of this source of stress. Indeed, his book is much more than a guide to survival. The prologue, a fictionalized account of a chaotic teaching period with control totally lost, does not serve much purpose but otherwise there is a great deal of interesting and expert assessment of attitudes, organizational devices and situations as they affect the teachers. Moreover, it is well written and consequently readable.

S. E. GUNN

Born curious
R. A. Hodgkin
John Wiley £5·50

Mr Hodgkin has a taste for models, diagrams and key-words which the reader may not share. However, he writes in an illuminating and highly individual way and has a broad educational vision which makes it worthwhile to stand beside him. He attempts in this book to stimulate the evolution of our ideas about teaching and learning. In this, Hodgkin's particular contribution has been the concept of a frontier. In applying it to knowledge,

he distinguishes the points at which new ideas, new discoveries, and new achievements are occurring from that at which the individual asks questions and formulates his own experimental programmes. The teacher's task, he writes, is to bring these two creative zones, the learner's and the researcher's into accord.

Born Curious describes how this task can be achieved. Taking education as being concerned with the pursuit and enlargement of competence, the author says some interesting things about play as the foundation on which competence is built. The achievement of learning results from competence allied to imagination. A characteristic reference to climbing puts this effectively. Mallory's remark about climbing Everest because it was there is held to be only a half truth; he and a few others possessed — just possessed, after long experience — the climbing competence needed to do it and also the imagination to see the summit of Everest on their own individual frontier of achievement.

In its examination of the strategies of teaching, the book starts from bases established by Piaget and Bruner. Instruction involves the processing and presentation of knowledge by action/demonstration, through visual perceptions, or through symbolic systems — one plays a piano, looks at a picture, interprets the signs on a printed page. In these ways we discover, or are helped to discover, our world. Another mode of learning is recognized — the interpersonal. Hodgkin adds this to Bruner, but might have been expected to develop it further. He appears to be opening up the issues so memorably discussed by R. M. Jones in his *Fantasy and Feeling in Education*. Jones also found Bruner's *Towards a Theory of Instruction* inadequate at this point. He made it clear that any such theory must have a place for instruction in the understanding of human emotions. Emotions, which are integral to all other processes of human growth, must be used also in the learning process which takes place in schools. Such a proposal involves a repeated challenge to the personality of the learner. Personal challenges can be issued only by persons, so interpersonal exchanges are themselves a mode of learning.

In his consideration of the future of secondary education, Mr Hodgkin, as befits a former headmaster of Abbotsholme, re-states the 'progressive' tradition in his final chapter. His was indeed a school where there were 'groups of young people learning and being taught to do demanding, useful and creative things . . . economic and utilitarian considerations must be seen as constraints on the system and not as giving it direction or power'.

At times it is heavy going, but this is undoubtedly a book with powerful claims on the attention of all who consider themselves students of education.

DAVID HOPKINSON

Evaluation Newsletter No. 1 (Summer 1976)
Roland Hoste and Robin Alexander (editors)

Evaluation Newsletter is a new publication produced under the auspices of the Committee for Research into Teacher Education. Its aim is to provide a means of exchanging ideas and information about ways of evaluating courses for teacher and higher education. Copies and further details from either Robin Alexander, Didsbury College of Education, Wilmslow Road, Manchester M20 8RR, or Roland Hoste, Institute of Education, Leeds University, Leeds LS2 9JT.

Additional books received

ADDERLEY, KENNETH, *et al.* Project methods in higher education. *(Society for Research into Higher Education) £3·60.*

ASHTON, PATRICIA, PAT KNEEN, and FRANCES DAVIES. Aims into practice in the primary school. *(University of London Press) £1·20.*

ASHTON, PATRICIA, PAT KNEEN, FRANCES DAVIES, and B. J. HOLLEY. The aims of primary education: a study of teachers' opinions. *(Macmillan Education) £5·25 (£3·75 paperback).*

ASSISTANT MASTERS ASSOCIATION. Selection for admission to a university. *(Assistant Masters Association) £0·60.*

BENTLEY, ARNOLD. Music in education: a point of view. *(NFER) £2·95.*

BOWLES, SAMUEL, and HERBERT GINTIS. Schooling in capitalist America: educational reform and the contradictions of economic life. *(Routledge & Kegan Paul) £6·95.*

THE BRITISH COUNCIL and THE ASSOCIATION OF COMMONWEALTH UNIVERSITIES. Higher education in the United Kingdom, 1976-78. *(Longman) £2·50.*

CANDY, ALICE. A long way to manhood. *(National Society for Mentally Handicapped Children) £0·50.*

CHANAN, GABRIEL, and SARA DELAMONT. Frontiers of classroom research. *(NFER) £5·65.*

DAWS, PETER P. Early days: a personal view of the beginnings of counselling in English education during the decade 1964-74. *(Hobsons Press) £4·00.*

DEALE, R. N. Assessment and testing in the secondary school. *(Evans/Methuen Education) £2·70.*

GOLDSTEIN, MARY. Teaching in the first school. *(Batsford) £3·95 (£1·95 paperback).*

KONSTANT, DAVID. Religious education for secondary schools. *(Search Press: Macmillan Education) £4·25.*

LANCASHIRE, RUTH, and ROGER HOLDSWORTH. Career change. *(Hobsons Press) £4·40 (£1·40 paperback).*

MARCH, PETER, and MICHAEL SMITH. Your choice at 17. *(Hobsons Press) £0·95.*

PUMFREY, PETER D. Reading: tests and assessment techniques. *(Hodder & Stoughton) £4·95. (£2·60 paperback).*

REGIONAL ADVISORY COUNCILS IN ENGLAND AND WALES. 1976/77: a compendium of advanced courses in colleges of further and higher education. *(Regional Advisory Councils) £1·20.*

RIVERS, WILGA, M., MILTON M. AZEVEDO, WILLIAM H. HEFLIN, and RUTH HYMAN-OPLER. A practical guide to the teaching of Spanish. *(Oxford University Press) £4·95.*

ROGERS, SINCLAIR. Children and language: readings in early language and socialization. *(Oxford University Press) £7·50 (£5·00 paperback).*

ROSEN, HAROLD (editor). Language and literacy in our schools: some appraisals of the Bullock Report. Studies in Education 1. *(University of London Institute of Education) £1·75.*

SCHONEVELD, J. The bible in Israeli education. *(Royal Vangorcum) Dfl. 49·50.*

STONE, G. R. 1976 Compendium of sixth form and tertiary colleges. *(Headmasters' Association) £1·00. (Obtainable from the compiler, South East Derbyshire College, Mundy Street, Heanor, Derbyshire DE7 7DZ).*

TAYLOR, P. H. (editor). Aims, influence and change in the primary school curriculum. *(NFER) £3·75.*

TIZARD, BARBARA. Early childhood education: a review and discussion of research in Britain. *(NFER) £3·15.*

VAN DER EYKEN, W., and S. M. KANETI BARRY. Learning and earning: aspects of day release in FE. *(NFER) £5·65.*

WILMS, WELLFORD W. Public and proprietary vocational training. *(Lexington Books) £6·00.*

WILSON, JOHN. Educational theory and the preparation of teachers. *(NFER) £3·75.*

Published by Her Majesty's Stationery Office and printed in England by Hobbs the Printers Limited, Southampton, SO9 2UZ

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ISBN 0 11 722313 1